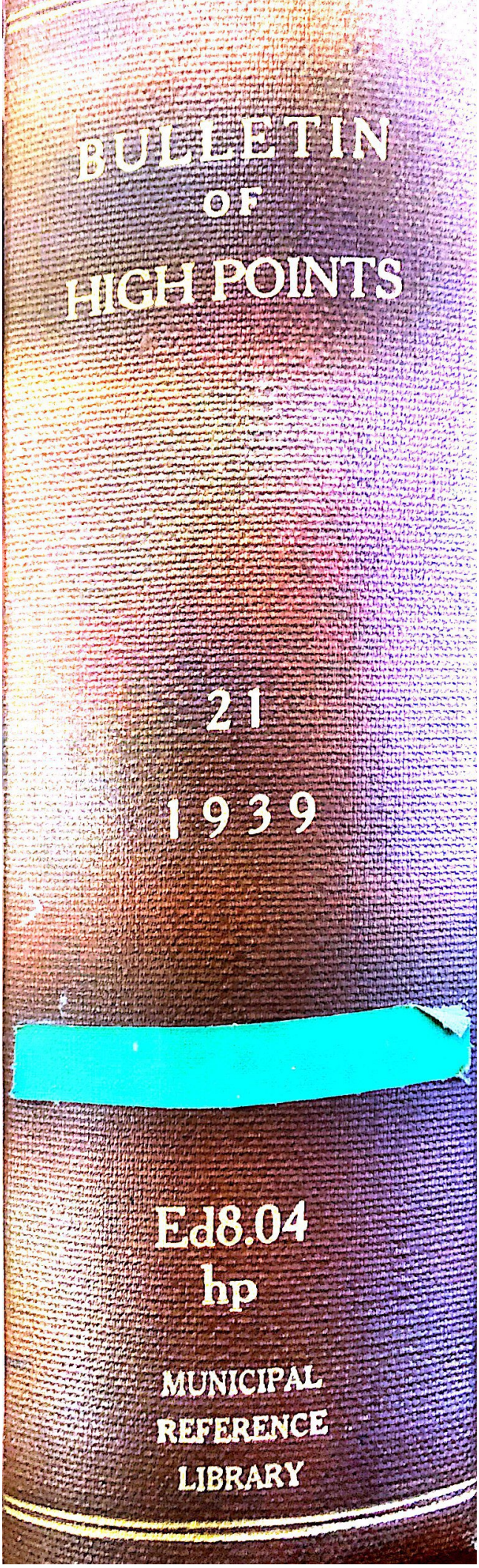
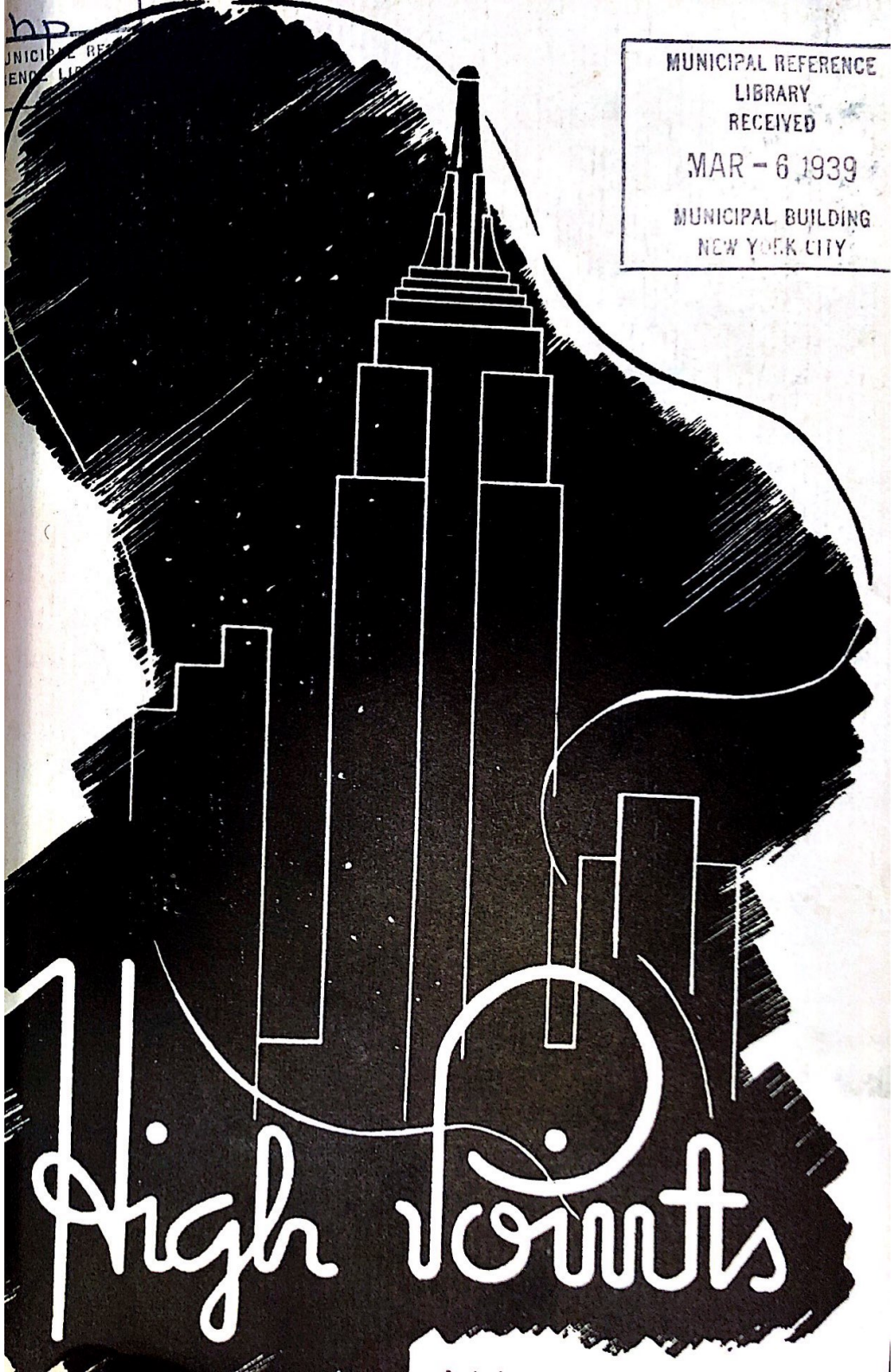


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A NEW OUTLOOK FOR THE CURRICULUM IN ENGLISH*

A limitation of ten minutes has very wisely been placed upon this presentation of "A New Outlook for the Curriculum in English". Accordingly, I shall attempt to contribute something about the outlook, and very little about the curriculum in English. In 1934, the State Department of Education issued a Syllabus in English which is ample and complete in its development of content and teaching practices in the aspects of written English, oral English, and literature.

In the brief time which I have at my disposal, I shall give all my attention to the aspect of reading. In the past, reading has been looked upon as synonymous with reading literary masterpieces, or reading the classics of literature. The modern outlook is based on a recognition that reading presents a general problem that bears specific functional relationship to literature, as it does to science, social studies, mathematics, and language study.

Now, what happens within the classrooms of our schools is much more important than what appears within the scope of a syllabus. Extended studies made at the adult level, show that ⅓ to ⅔ of the adult population of the United States are unable to read, with ease and understanding, material of sixth grade difficulty. The study made of over 20,000 pupils who entered our high schools in January 1938 reveals ranges in reading ability from 4.5 to 10.6 with a normal median of 9.0 for the entire group.

The world scene obtrudes itself upon our consciousness, and enters our homes and classrooms via the radio, magazines, public speeches, newspapers, tabloids, and books of serious or trivial import. We are forced to the conclusion that as a result of these agencies for the dissemination of good and unworthy material, as a result of many social trends, the actual and potential value of reading is greater than it ever has been as an instrument of intellectual, political, and social life.

That there is national recognition of this problem is evidenced by the fact that the National Society for the Study of Education has issued its 36th Yearbook, devoted exclusively to "The Teaching of Reading". This report sets forth the following broad objectives of reading:

*Speech delivered at the meeting of the New York Association of Teachers of English, Saturday, October 22, 1938.

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b. to broaden interests
c. to develop appreciation
d. to cultivate ideal and appropriate attitudes
e. to provide for intelligent self-direction and social progress

There are those who "view with alarm" any reference to the examination of the masterpieces of literature, as an attempt to destroy the abiding values of the study of literature. Reading is rapidly becoming an all-school function of the high schools, and any book which adds profitably and pleasurably to the interpretation of life in any field—history, art, science—should be considered an appropriate part of the reading curriculum.

One can observe in hundreds of classrooms, daily, that analytical vivisection of literature which has destroyed the life-blood of the literary masterpieces. I visited a class only a few days ago in which the teacher—a competent teacher—was leading a discussion of *Macbeth*. "It has been said", said he, "that Macbeth was destroyed by his superstitions. Prove it." The pupils rose to the task. They brought forth in a manner to bring a glow of pride to the face of the teacher, the details of the witches' prophecies pertaining to the removal of the forest, and Macbeth's invulnerability against

students knew what the teacher wanted and they gave it to him in good measure. I submit to you that this was, in my judgment, an example of the most useless and spurious kind of thinking. The teacher in this instance failed to utilize the situation for real learning. He failed to note that in their spurious reasoning, the students were tacitly accepting the superstitions of the witches. The spirit moved me, at that moment, to take over the class. In two minutes, it was revealed that the students subscribed to a host of superstitions of their own.

This acceptance of false and knowingly spurious thinking by pupils on the part of teachers is a dreadful commentary upon the values of literature for life. Witness the testimony of Vincent Sheean in his recital of his days at college in *Personal History*.

Children will read what is readily accessible to them. Ten books on a shelf or desk in a classroom are likely to arouse more interest in students than ten times that many on library shelves bearing "Do Not Touch" signs. If there are any such signs in your libraries, I suggest that they be removed. Children enjoy reading material that is read under pleasant, agreeable conditions, with teachers whom they admire. I accept as a guiding principle, that enjoyment is an essential factor in developing appreciation. Sterling Andrus Leonard writes, in this connection, "Literature is most appreciated and makes its best contribution when it is approached in a recreational mood of curiosity and not in the way of study and work."

I must hurry on to one more outlook calculated to round out the program of reading, of reading with enjoyment, and of inculcating appreciation. That is the question of the cultivation of taste for good literature. It must be borne in mind that tastes of young people are immature, and that tastes are subject to growth. It is a mistake to assume that a boy who enters the first term of high school should coincide with the teacher in his taste for the things selected by the teacher.

And any effort to impose the teacher's taste upon the pupil will inevitably result in the delivery of false judgments by the pupil, and will effectively destroy the pupil's confidence in the teacher's judgment. In such a situation, the hope for the cultivation of taste and the teacher's potential guidance in such cultivation is completely destroyed. Let taste grow with maturity and with judgment based upon sound guidance from the richer experience of the teacher.

DAVID H. MOSKOWITZ.
Assistant Superintendent.

THE DIVISION OF CULTURAL RELATIONS AND THE ROLE OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHER IN THE PROMOTION OF INTER-AMERICAN CULTURAL RELATIONS*

The question of encouraging and strengthening cultural relations and intellectual coöperation between the United States and other countries has assumed an increasing importance during the past few years. While in many nations of the world special governmental agencies have been developed for this purpose, in the United States dependence has been almost entirely on private foundations and institutions. Throughout the country, active and effective societies, clubs and organizations of every kind exist to promote cultural interchange and a sympathetic understanding of the culture, history and social institutions of other peoples. The work of many of these institutions has been worthy of the highest praise. The colleges and universities of this country have also devoted considerable attention to the study of

*Address by Dr. Richard F. Pattee of the Division of Cultural Relations of the Department of State before the New Jersey Modern Language Teachers Association, Atlantic City, New Jersey, Friday, November 11, 1938.

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the development and present condition of other nations. Many of these organizations with limited means and restricted budgets have encouraged every legitimate form of international exchange and have contributed in no small way to the development of a comprehension of other cultures within this country and of our own culture abroad. It is clear, however, that in spite of the praiseworthy efforts of many of these groups, there exists a need for a coördination to increase effectiveness and avoid to a larger degree inevitable overlapping.

The absence of a centralizing agency in the United States to coordinate these activities has long been felt and it is recognized that the Government of the United States has certain definite obligations in stimulating and encouraging contacts with the other peoples of the world. Although this recognition constitutes a departure, in a certain sense, from the traditional practice, it is reasonable nevertheless that in our relations with other governments and peoples, the aid and coöperation of official agencies is necessary. The decision to establish the Division of Cultural Relations in the Department of State is the result of mature consideration and careful thought. It is the opinion of the Department that there are certain limitations on private efforts which can be overcome through the existence of an official agency which can coöperate with and advise, suggest, and aid private enterprises in every possible way.

It should be emphasized that the Department of State has no intention of encroaching upon activities which pertain logically to private initiative. Neither has it any intention of supplanting or diminishing the effective work which is being done by private institutions, but rather to assist them in producing more effective results toward nationwide coördination. The new Division of Cultural Relations will serve as a central bureau working in harmony with the foundations, societies, institutes, clubs and educational organizations in this country which strive to improve cultural relations. The general purpose is to complete the broad structure of intellectual coöperation by supplying one of the elements which has hitherto been lacking: the coöperation of the Government in those spheres in which it can be of aid to the general efforts to promote international understanding through cultural contacts. It will also offer every possible aid in behalf of the United States in the very important Division of Intellectual Coöperation of the Pan American Union. This is in keeping with the policy followed in many other nations. In a number of the other American republics, the national committees on intellectual coöperation function in close collaboration with the appropriate bureau or division in the Foreign Office or the Ministry of Public Instruction. There are certain definite activities, the success of which must depend to a large extent on the good offices of the government.

While many details of the broad program for the promotion of intellectual coöperation and cultural relations on the part of the United States have yet to be worked out, it is possible to suggest to you the principal aspects of this work which the Department will undertake to stimulate. The new Division of Cultural Relations will direct the official international activities of the Department of State with respect to cultural relations. It will seek above all to coördinate the wide diversity of activities which are being carried on throughout the country. These activities will embrace the exchange of professors, teachers and students; coöperation in the field of music, art, literature and other intellectual activities; encouragement of the distribution of libraries of representative works of the United States and suitable translations of such works into other languages as well as from foreign languages into English; collaboration in the preparation for and participation by this Government in international expositions, especially in the field of art; coöperation by this Government in international radio broadcasts; and, in general, the dissemination abroad of the representative intellectual and cultural works of the United States.

It is well to emphasize that these efforts will be reciprocal as far as is possible. It is desired that the channels be opened for the free flow of ideas and cultural production from this country abroad and from the other nations to the United States. The concept of intellectual coöperation would be incomplete if a unilateral policy were carried out and it is anticipated, therefore, that the Division may also contribute effectively to the diffusion of a knowledge of foreign cultures among our own people.

One of the activities of the Division is the fulfillment of the obligation which the United States has assumed under the Convention for the Promotion of Inter-American Cultural Relations, approved at the Buenos Aires Conference in 1936. This convention was sponsored by the United States Delegation and it received the unanimous support of the delegates from the other American Republics. Besides the United States, the governments of Brazil, Chile, the Dominican Republic and Haiti have ratified the convention and it is expected that other governments will take similar action in the near future. This convention provides for the annual exchange by each of the contracting states of two students and one professor, so that the United States will receive each year under this arrangement forty

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students and twenty professors and will send out an equal number, assuming that the convention is ratified by all of the American Republics. This constitutes an important step in the way of stimulating interchange of students and professors with the other republics of this hemisphere.

The increased exchange of publications is an important phase of the work which the Division proposes to undertake. The books, journals and reviews of the United States have a very limited circulation in the other American Republics and even in Europe the movement of publications is by no means as active as it should be. It is fundamental that for effective intellectual coöperation the publications of the United States which reflect the cultural and spiritual life of this country be available to the other nations of the world. It is proposed to stimulate the circulation of such works, the establishment of libraries, and the publication of suitable translations.

In some of the capitals of the American Republics, special institutes exist for intellectual coöperation with the United States; notably, in Rio de Janeiro, Buenos Aires, Saniago and Lima. There is a dearth of such institutions in the American states in contrast with the relatively large number of institutions which exist for the promotion of cultural relations with Europe. It is important that coöperation and encouragement be extended to these organizations to the end that close cultural contacts may be maintained.

The twin fields of art and music offer considerable opportunities for effective coöperation. Art of the United States is known only too little outside this country, while the artistic productions of the other American nations reach people of the United States to a limited extent. In some of the other American Republics significant achievements in art are being realized and with these countries suitable exchange exhibits should be carried out. American music, other than popular dance music, has received little general hearing. Concerts and other forms of musical expression, as well as visits by individual artists would contribute considerably to a diffusion of the knowledge of the culture of this country. The whole field of radio broadcasting offers almost unlimited possibilities for the increase of international understanding through effective cultural relations.

At a time when international relations are as complex and intricate as at the present, it is necessary that an official agency of the Government lend its aid and effort to the achievement of better understanding, mutual respect and tolerance between this nation and the other peoples of the world, on the basis of cultural and material contacts and relationships. The promotion of active student and teacher exchanges, the establishment of libraries and research facilities and the encouragement of all serious efforts for intellectual and spiritual intercourse constitute a significant and important instrument of peace.

There is no question that the secondary school teachers of this country, especially those engaged in instruction in the modern languages, can perform a very real service in the furtherance of the program of cultural interchange which is envisaged.

This western hemisphere offers unlimited opportunities for the effective stimulation of interest in two of the great modern languages, Spanish and French. The proximity of the Spanish-speaking countries and the access to two French language regions, Canada and Haiti, should make possible a much broader program of exchange and contact than has heretofore existed. As regards the specific work of the modern language teacher as a factor in the stimulation of interest in the work of inter-American understanding, there would seem to be an extraordinary challenge through instruction in the Spanish language. The past few years have witnessed a shift or change of emphasis in the teaching of Spanish, with increased attention to the rôle of this language in the western world. The situation in the Spanish peninsula, with the restrictions on publications and travel, makes inevitable a growing concentration of interest in the republics of South and Central America of Spanish speech. There has been for a long time a tendency to look upon the pronunciation, idioms and peculiar linguistic forms of Hispanic America as undesirable elements in the Spanish language. A frank recognition in the classroom that the speech of America is in no way inferior to that of the peninsula and equally worthy of the most careful attention and instruction, will go far to encouraging a proper perspective in which the republics of this hemisphere are given their just due.

In view of the generalities inherent in any exposition of this character, it is perhaps felt that a few practical and tangible suggestions would be in order, so that the teacher of modern languages, who is desirous of offering even a modest coöperation in this important work, may appreciate the possibilities which exist for effective labor.

Most of you are probably aware of the work of the Division of Intellectual Coöperation of the Pan American Union. This able organization, understaffed and hampered by lack of material facilities, has done and is doing a splendid work in the diffusion of a knowledge of the cultural values of the other American republics. It would seem that in the work in the Spanish language, many of the bulletins, pamphlets and re-

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views of this Section of the Union might prove enormously stimulating and useful. First of all, these publications reveal the realities of contemporary Hispanic - American civilization, emphasizing the thought, spirit and viewpoint of these republics. They are full of information of a literary, scientific and social nature, which would give the student of language not only a grasp of style, but also some inkling of the movements and preoccupations of the peoples of the other American states. The mimeographed publication, *Correo*, which the Union issues, is an important vehicle for the dissemination of a knowledge of the cultural trends in the Spanish and Portuguese speaking nations. If schools could be encouraged to reproduce parts of this review in mimeographed form for wider circulation, a considerable contribution would be made toward reaching a larger number of people unaffected by contact with Hispanic-American affairs. In more specialized fields, there are numerous Government publications available, through the Departments of Commerce, Agriculture and State. The lists of the Government Printing Office contain an extraordinary amount of material at the lowest possible cost, treating of the economics, sociology, international relations and commerce of these nations. All are easily procurable through this central printing agency.

The expenditure of a minimum of effort would serve to bring into the high school where Spanish is taught a number of interesting publications from the American republics themselves. The generosity of many of the governments and even private agencies is almost proverbial. The school which is interested might secure the textbooks, readers and other didactic materials which are utilized in the schools of any of the republics to the south of us. Almost any Ministry of Public Instruction would respond to the request for those materials which could be used in the classroom and which would make more real the study of the Spanish language.

In the broad field of the cinema, there is much yet to be done. Unfortunately, educational films on Hispanic America are still few in number and not readily obtainable. The Pan American Union has a small number, but the heavy demand makes it difficult to consider this source as easily available. There is a very real need for films on the life and customs of the Hispanic-American peoples which can reach the high school and primary school audiences. One of the things in which the Department of State is most vitally interested is the working out of an effective arrangement toward this end.

Radio broadcasting on Hispanic America, except in so far as it is of news interest, is still very much in the process of development. There are some programs of interpretation of Hispanic-American affairs which serve to stimulate popular interest. There is room, however, for a more adequate and suitable presentation of the culture, history, and contemporary scene in the other American republics, adapted to the needs and interest of high school students.

I need not dwell on certain more or less obvious forms of cultural contact which those engaged in teaching may find of interest. Travel in the other American republics is becoming both easier and more comfortable. The great increase in tourist travel in Mexico is accompanied by a growing enthusiasm for Cuba, Haiti, the Dominican Republic, Puerto Rico and other regions easily accessible for those who have available only a limited time for travel. There is no question that the language teacher, eager to gain contact with Spanish civilization, can satisfy this desire at the minimum of cost and distance. Cuba, Venezuela, Panama, and Central America are areas where the characteristics of Hispanic culture may be appreciated as effectively in many cases as in Europe itself. It is to be hoped that the demand will develop for the establishment of suitable facilities in instruction in these nearby countries for the teacher who wishes to devote the summer to the study of the Spanish language, literature and history. This would add, perhaps, to the inducement to turn one's steps southward to the nations which are so close and which are as yet relatively unexploited from the cultural point of view.

These are merely random suggestions, more or less disjointed and aimed at indicating the multiplicity of possibilities which are offered for the active and effective collaboration of the modern language teachers in the work of cultural relations between this country and the other republics of the new world.

PAN-AMERICANISM AND THE ROLE OF SPANISH

The Pan - American Conference recently concluded at Lima has been an important subject for discussion in the news and editorial columns of our publications for the past month. Those of us who are interested in economic, social, cultural or political affairs (which takes in just about everyone) have watched the course of events in Peru with a degree of anxiety, an emotion justified by the many rebuffs administered to the American delegation. Therefore I believe that a discussion of some of the angles involved in the matter would

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because it is now possible to review some of the issues in retrospect, and secondly, because they have not yet had the opportunity to grow stale with age.

Sometimes I think it is amazing to contemplate the apathy and blindness of Americans, both officially and privately, to matters under their very noses and about which they should have the greatest concern. The case of Latin-America is very much in point. It seems all too obvious to remark that since democracy and freedom are our heritage, we should be interested in spreading these ideals. Yet notwithstanding the fact that the Latin-American countries are in the Western Hemisphere along with the United States, and despite the fact that culturally, economically and politically, the fascist countries of Europe and Asia have made tremendous inroads in our neighbors to the south, we have not yet formulated a sound policy to spread sympathy for our ideals and interests in Latin-America. The press and other media of information have been telling us for years, with an abundance of detail, of the impressive work being done in Latin-America by the totalitarian states, but no concrete steps have come forth from us to win the Spanish- and Portuguese-speaking countries to our points of view. Carleton Beals' latest book on Latin-America contains a tremendous array of facts—names, places, ian, and Japanese penetration in Latin-America. A front-page story in the *New York Times* of October 9, 1938, for example, quotes President Alessandri of Chile as stating that "all teachers in government schools (in Chile) . . . had to study in the institute (Chilean-German Cultural Institute) created by German experts" and that "Germany's growing interest in South America was shown by the fact that Spanish was a compulsory language in German High Schools."

Compare this, if you will, with our activities. Almost consistently from the first establishment of the Latin republics in the New World, our policy towards them—and let us not forget that their origins, like our own, were the result of a revolution against a tyrannical mother country so that they might enjoy the privileges of liberty and democracy (in fact, a number of their constitutions are patterned after our own)—has been one of general neglect and disinterest and of particular greed and exploitation. There is little wonder, therefore, that they have often attacked us as the mercenary, Godless "colossus of the North." In fact, almost all they know about North Americans is the result of their judgment of our few countrymen who have gone down there—representatives, in the main, of large industrial organizations whose primary ambition has been to wring from them as much material advantage as possible, unfortified with a knowledge of the language, customs, traditions, habits, attitudes and aspirations of which they are so proud. We have sought to impose our will and ideas upon them without attempting in advance to make ourselves welcome by a display of sympathy, understanding, and knowledge. Generally speaking, we in America have had neither the initiative nor the courtesy to realize that a friendly approach is the necessary prerequisite for keeping alive down there a sympathy for our spiritual and material objectives.

The fascist countries can teach us much in the line of methods. In Germany, Latin-American work is regarded as a career. They have schools devoted not merely to teaching Spanish — the basis on which all other activity reposes— but to the study of the Spanish-American character: its ideals, customs, habits, sensitivity. Along with this preparation of students in the culture and lore of Latin-America, they furnish them with a knowledge of the technique of Latin-American trade and investment. Germany and Italy also stand ready to provide free university professors for the asking. Many of their important military leaders are in active control of Latin-American forces. Germany finances the exchange of students between herself and South-American countries.

To be sure, Germany and Italy seek not only business advantage but also political indoctrination in Latin-America—they have hundreds of their own schools, political parties, and organizations down there. We Americans have both the right and the duty of publicizing our ideas of democracy, and to gain some of the important trade to be done there. But such achievements come through planning and through work. A Pan-American Conference every so often is a fine thing, but speeches and noble sentiments are viewed with a degree of suspicion and are soon forgotten. One doesn't spread his ideas by making a speech occasionally. The way to do it is through routine, day-after-day work on the spot by people trained and equipped for the task. We are all judged by what we do, rather than by what we say, no matter how noble the latter may appear. And this is particularly acute when the representatives we send to such an occasional conference (admitting its natural inadequacy), are linguistic cripples, unable to speak Spanish. You don't get to a person's heart through a language foreign to him. Germany and Italy would never be guilty of such inefficiency.

What shall we say about the study of Spanish here? Editorials in the press of recent date have pointed out the vast importance of the language to Americans, yet, paradoxically enough, the study of

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Spanish here as well as all over the country has been declining for the past few years, with scarcely a prospect of increasing under the present conditions. As a case in point, no examination to teach Spanish in New York City has been given since 1935, and a number of teachers placed on the eligible list as a result of that examination have not yet been appointed.

Private pressure is one cause of the decline of Spanish, for there are some people who, because of their own inability or unwillingness to understand the value and importance of the language, are seeking to submerge it. This literal suppression is shown by the fact that in many of our public schools, Spanish is not even included in the curriculum as a possible subject for our pupils to elect, leaving aside the possibility of making it a compulsory course. A recent survey showed that despite pupils' requests for Spanish, only 24 per cent of our New York City junior high schools offer it, while French is taught in 97.4 per cent of the junior high schools. Surely, our Board of Education would not want us to believe that French has such a gigantic advantage over Spanish as a cultural or practical language. This abnormal situation does not exist for lack of qualified teachers of Spanish, nor from pupils' unwillingness to study it.

Spanish is taught in the academic high schools, but there it is almost exclusively a second language, principally because so many students enter from junior high schools where only French has been offered to them. Furthermore, language study is being "de-emphasized" in the high schools, where pupils are being urged to study only one language. This cuts Spanish out again. In the academic high schools, a language requirement exists only for those pupils pursuing an academic course—no such requirement exists for pupils taking either the general course or the commercial course. To all of this may be added the fact that in many of our high schools a fifth subject—usually an elective, and therefore a language—is given to a student only on condition that he has obtained very high marks in his previous term's subjects.

The last few years have seen the rapid rise of the vocational high school. Here no languages are studied because they are not even offered in the school's curriculum, since they are considered, where vocational training is concerned, as useless frills. There is also 'the feeling that vocational school pupils do not have the background or capacity for learning a language.

Spanish is not something that requires outstanding ability or a pure cultural background. It is understood that not every pupil who studies Spanish will develop into a Spanish scholar. Whether a pupil is "bright," or whether he is "dull," does not enter into the question. In the high school, a student should not have to be in the upper quartile to receive the benefits of language study. Spanish can be learned by everybody, according to his *own* capabilities.

As languages are taught now, this might not be possible, because it is assumed that languages must be taught from the conventional angle. Very little has yet been done about revising the curriculum so that the language course may be presented at the level of the pupil's ability. It is time we destroyed the idea that extraordinary intelligence is needed to study a foreign language successfully. Much has been said about presenting material within the grasp of the pupils, at the level of their intelligence. However, instead of puting this sound educational principle into practice, educators follow the policy of obliging the pupil to maintain the standard the educator sets, under penalty of being dropped or barred from the subject. Going still further, they sometimes withdraw the subject from the curriculum on a wholesale scale, not stopping to realize that a curriculum without language study is dwarfed and sterile.

Spanish, as far as Latin-America is concerned, is the language of trade and industry. With the narrowing of the world about us due to the fascist drives against the political and economic stability of Europe and Asia, many Americans are thinking very seriously that our greatest hope for peace and commerce lies now to the South, in Latin-America. Therefore, a course in Spanish in the high schools which would concern itself largely with commercial terms and methods in connection with Latin-American trade and investment would be a good education for employment. Of special interest to the vocational schools should be the fact that there is a definite shortage of skilled workers in the mechanical trades in the Latin-American countries—a fertile field for our own vocational school graduates. Naturally, however, the ability to repair an automobile or to wind an armature must be accompanied by a knowledge of the language and an understanding of the customs and habits of the people.

The culture of the Spanish-speaking people, whether in Europe or in Latin-America, is a vital one. The knowledge of the art, music, and literature of these peoples can go far in promoting that feeling of closeness and tolerance and understanding that the United States is so eager to achieve.

Our school system preaches "tolerance" and "democracy" as worthwhile objectives of education, but it neglects or scorns the democratic attitudes that are so easily

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developed as the result of studying a foreign language, since the study of a language cannot fail to bring in a study of the people who speak that language. I have frequently been shocked by the tremendous dearth of information that people have about Latin-America. How immeasurably our "love thy neighbor" theme would be aided if we knew something of our neighbor's thoughts, likes, dislikes, customs — if we knew something about the language in which he thinks them!

Spanish must be raised to a position of importance in our schools, and a proper, and justified campaign must be launched to bring home the value of Spanish to the officials of our school systems, to parents, and to pupils, if the lessons of the last Pan-American Conference are to mean anything. They must be learned thoroughly and the conclusions gained from them must be applied swiftly if the next Conference is not to be a complete failure and if the totalitarian doctrines of political domination and economic penetration are not to blot out our ideals and interests in Latin-America. The next Conference must not be permitted to reveal that we are too late for anything but hollow laughter. Our success, if there is to be any, lies in education.

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AN APPRAISAL OF THE TREATMENT OF DEMOCRACY IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SYLLABUS IN HISTORY*

For a long time, teachers of history in the high schools have been aware of their students' inadequate understanding of the most elementary concepts of American democracy. True, the home, the radio, the press and other institutions in the community at large may be responsible, and over these the school system has no control. However, a large part of the responsibility for the erroneous ideas and general ignorance on the subject of democracy, with which our students enter high school, might well be traced to the elementary school.

*At a meeting of the Executive Committee of the Association of Teachers of History in 1937, a motion was introduced by Mr. Ralph Guiness of Richmond Hill High School that a committee study the nature of instruction in history in our elementary schools. A committee under the chairmanship of Mr. Abraham Geduldig of Haaren High School thereupon undertook a study of the syllabus and representative textbooks used in New York City. The above article is the first of a series of reports which was made to and accepted by the Executive Committee of the Association.

With this question in mind, a sub-committee was selected by the Association of Teachers of the Social Studies to appraise the elementary school syllabus in history with a view to suggest improvements in the teaching of democracy. A sense of the losing battle which democracy seems to be waging throughout the world against the forces of totalitarian dictatorship spurred the committee on. It was recognized immediately that a syllabus written almost a decade ago, when the issue of democracy versus dictatorship was not so pressing as it is to-day, would probably not stress the theme with the importance which contemporary events demand.

One objection which may be made to the efforts of the committee might as well be answered at the outset. It has been said by some that young children in the elementary grades are not mature enough to understand the abstract idea of democracy. This may be true if the teaching of democracy is allowed to descend to mere verbalism. Whether it is successful or not will depend on:

1. The teacher's ability to simplify the subject for her young pupils.
2. The use of the democratic method upon every possible occasion in the classroom, with practical illustrations of such concepts as, the will of the majority, tolerance, and freedom of expression.
3. The use of every opportunity to teach democracy by contrast with dictatorships and unrepresentative government, in current events and history.

In order to make this report as succinct as possible the committee presents its recommendations, and then offers references to the syllabus in support of its criticisms and suggestions. The committee has also checked with various texts in the field and has found that, by and large, they tend to agree in their broad outlines with the syllabus, as would be expected. Selections from Scoppa's *American History Series* for use in the upper grades are quoted here to show the frequent correlation. However, where there is a difference, this text is often superior to the syllabus.

Our recommendations are:

I. GIVE PUPILS TRAINING IN DEMOCRATIC PROCEDURE

There is very little attempt at this in the syllabus. Instruction should certainly be given in elementary club procedure since this has practical value in later life in understanding governmental processes, in participation in trade unions or business associations, and in engaging in social and cultural forums and activities. Dramatizations of town meetings, legis-

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lative meetings, and court activities should likewise be undertaken on a simple level. As a matter of fact, one of the most praiseworthy features of the syllabus is the list of activities suggested at the end of each grade, but activities offering training in self-government play a very small rôle here.

II. SHOW OLD WORLD BACKGROUNDS OF OUR DEMOCRATIC HERITAGE IN A UNIFIED FASHION

Particularly in Ancient History did the syllabus writers slip up on their opportunities. Thus in 7A, it would seem obvious that contrasts should be made between the despotic government of Egypt, the "pure" democracy of Athens, and the representative democracy of Rome. Lessons are given on Athens without even a mention that it represented the first important origin of our western democracy. Scoppa is somewhat better since in vol. 1, pages 41-2, and 43-7, he does deal with democracy in Athens, though in a much too technical fashion. The struggle for self-government, as in the Medieval towns, is glossed over in the syllabus, but treated to some extent in the text.

III. DEAL WITH THE CONSTITUTION AS A GENETIC, NOT A STATIC DOCUMENT, EMPHASIZING THE BILL OF RIGHTS

The Constitution is an extraordinary document, but even its makers would not regard is as flawless. Yet no hint is given of the ever important necessity of revision and amendment if our democracy would keep up with the times. It is not sufficient to state that the Constitution is a "model for others" and has "required little alteration." Surely blind veneration is not our aim. Scoppa falls into the same difficulty when he too repeats that little alteration has been needed and that it is a model. Democratic institutions must constantly be perfected. Students should realize their future responsibility as citizens in this work of constructive evolution.

The Bill of Rights is almost universally recognized to-day as one of the most significant portions of the Constitution and our democratic heritage. This is dismissed in two lines on page 80 of the syllabus, when it should be made the subject of extended lessons. Free speech, press, religion, assembly, and such civil rights are indeed the very lifeblood of our institutions, and pupils should very early be given a realization of their significance. The textbook devotes less than a page to the first ten amendments, with no attempt at explanation of these rights.

IV. ATTEMPT TO INCULCATE TOLERANCE IN RACE RELATIONS AND AN APPRECIATION OF THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF ALL GROUPS TO OUR AMERICAN NATION

The concept of the equality of all of our various national and racial groups before the law is certainly a fundamental principle of democracy, one usually finds To-day, wherever there is a lack of intolerance. The syllabus constantly misses opportunities to do important work in this field. On page 97 the problem of Reconstruction comes up, on page 52, the New South. In both cases, the desirability of improving race relations might well be taken up, but is not. Problems of democracy in race relations which would give children a realistic understanding of the progress we must still make are omitted. The lack of enforcement of the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments, lynching, and the problem of the sharecroppers, are some notable omissions that result in a one-sided concept of the situation. The textbook likewise gives no realistic picture of limitations of democracy here, and the desirability of improving race relations by solving such difficulties.

America is a melting pot of various nationalities. The syllabus very laudably mentions in its aims, on page 105, that the contributions of the immigrants to our civilization be taken up, but inadequate details are given. The text is superior in that it shows the contributions of different groups to our economic and political system. However, it would seem that prominent individuals of different nationalities might well be mentioned to give substance and significance to the analysis.

V. COMPARE OTHER SYSTEMS OF GOVERNMENT TO AWAKEN AN APPRECIATION OF THE SERIOUSNESS OF THE DENIAL OF DEMOCRACY

Many an American has learned in the last few years to appreciate more thoroughly our institutions because of the growing knowledge of what the denial of civil rights has meant in the dictatorships. This might well be taken up near the close of 8B, with stress, not on the detailed structure of other governments, but on a study of how people's lives and liberties are affected in countries in which the individual loses his "inalienable rights."

VI. MAKE STUDENTS "DEMOCRACY CONSCIOUS" IN EVERY GRADE

This can be done at the very beginning, with the national holidays, showing the significance of honoring Lincoln, Washington, the Flag, and Independence. Lack of democracy can be shown in 4A, while teaching Dutch life. In 4B, the function of a leader in a democratic group may be contrasted with one in an absolute civilization. In 5A, the undemocratic conditions,—political, economic, social, and religious, from which colonists escaped, should be stressed. In 7B, Jeffersonian democracy should get a more thorough treatment than it does. These are simply illustrations of the many opportunities which are available, if the syllabus would disregard some of its detailed treatment of insignificant battles, and stress instead a theme which is truly significant.

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The committee has no intention in this brief analysis, to re-write the syllabus, but rather desires to make suggestions which would lead to a re-orientation of the course of study with democracy stressed as a key theme. If we fail to do this today, some time in the not too distant future, it may be too late. Surely, today, the function of the public school is to do all in its power to preserve the people's government.

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FAILURE AND SUBJECTS LIKED AND DISLIKED

As part of a general survey, made last year, of the very heterogeneous student body of Haaren High School (heterogeneous because there are given in this school the following courses: academic, general, commercial, dressmaking, automobile mechanics, aviation mechanics, electrical wiring and drafting) the questions "Which is your favorite subject?" and "Which subject do you like least?" brought to light the following facts: The vocational subjects were voted the best liked and, by large, the academic subjects the least liked. The tables below show 1) the subjects most liked in the order of their preference and 2) the subjects least liked in the order of their dislike. The numbers following the subjects show the percentages of those taking the subjects who indicated their likes and dislikes.

SUBJECTS MOST LIKED—TABLE 1

	Subject	% of those taking		Subject	% of those taking
1	Dressmaking	35.5	19	Mathematics	14.
2	Aviation shop	33.7	20	Civics	13.4
3	Stenography	32.9	21	French	13.3
4	Electricity laboratory	31.	22	Sales	12.6
5	Business law	28.5	23	Business arithmetic	12.
6	Auto theory	28.4	24	Spanish	10.8
7	Electricity theory	26.6	25	History	10.5
8	Typewriting	25.7	26	Economic geography	10.
9	Air-conditioning shop	25.	27	Costume design	7.7
10	Aviation theory	24.4	28	Art weaving	7.4
11	Latin	22.1	29	Economics	7.1
12	Auto shop	22.	30	Business training	7.1
13	Science	20.5	31	English	7.1
14	Accounting	19.6	32	Art	5.9
15	Air-conditioning theory	18.7	33	Art metal craft	4.7
16	Drafting	18.5	34	Hygiene	2.
17	Clay-modeling	15.8	35	Health education	1.6
18	Biology	15.4	36	Music	1.2

SUBJECTS LEAST LIKED—TABLE 2

	Subject	% of those taking		Subject	% of those taking
1	Mathematics	33.7	19	Drafting	6.1
2	Accounting	28.	20	Art	5.2
3	Economics	25.7	21	Auto theory	4.7
4	French	25.4	22	Hygiene	4.5
5	Latin	23.	23	Clay modeling	4.
6	Civics	21.7	24	Music	3.3
7	English	20.9	25	Electricity shop	3.2
8	History	18.6	26	Auto shop	3.
9	Economic geography	18.6	27	Typewriting	2.4
10	Sales	16.8	28	Aviation theory	2.3
11	Spanish	16.6	29	Art metal craft	2.
12	Business training	16.4	30	Dressmaking	1.4
13	Stenography	13.7	31	Aviation shop	1.3
14	Biology	9.8	32	Air-conditioning theory	1.2
15	Science	9.6	33	Air-conditioning shop	1.2
16	Electricity theory	9.1	34	Health education	1.2
17	Business arithmetic	9.	35	Art weaving	1.
18	Costume design	8.3	36	Business law	.9

SCHOLARSHIP RECORD—TABLE 3

	Subject	Register in Subject	No. Failed	% Failed
1	Mathematics	2,245	1,026	46
2	Spanish	334	116	35
3	French	543	167	31
4	Stenography	1,042	302	29
5	Accounting	723	198	27.4
6	History	1,985	543	27.3
7	Sales	143	32	22.4
8	Electrical theory	383	83	22
9	Biology	570	125	21.9
10	Economics	686	146	21.3
11	Latin	122	26	21
12	English	6,073	1,269	20.9
13	Civics	837	157	18.8
14	Business Training	467	79	16.9
15	Economic Geog.	434	73	16.8
16	Science	2,917	439	15.1

It will be noticed that among the best liked subjects are found Business Law in fifth place and Latin in eleventh place, the only non-vocational subjects among the first seventeen best liked subjects and, among the first eight least liked subjects Accounting in second place, the only vocational subject.

It is interesting to note that the school scholarship record showed that the subject which headed the least liked list was also the one failed by most, and the first sixteen subjects in both least liked and failure lists were the same, although, other than mathematics, not in the same order.

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There seems to be a decidedly close relationship between subjects least liked and subjects failed. No attempt will be made here to establish causal relationship—a study should be made to find out whether subjects are failed because they are little liked or whether they are little liked because they are so difficult that they cause failure. The fact remains that among the sixteen subjects which are listed above are virtually all the academic subjects which are usually required of all students for graduation.

What specifically can be done about this? Surely such high percentages of failure in mathematics, history, and English, the basic subjects, and the corresponding dislike of these subjects should prompt a thorough study of the situation. No attempt at a solution is offered here —rather a suggestion for an approach to a solution.

Mathematics—the formal algebra and geometry as covered by the state syllabus and required of all academic students—is certainly remote from the felt needs of boys studying automobile and aviation mechanics. The bookishness of the subjects does not somehow fit in with the practical aspects of the mechanical work which most of the boys are interested in. If there must be mathematics, it should be so modified that its direct relationship to and basis for mechanics must be realized by these hand workers and in such a manner that they won't balk at the mere mention of the word. That may, of course, mean a complete revision of the mathematics syllabus for the non-academic student—not a shop mathematics course but rather a course in applied algebra and geometry. Or isn't that possible? If it isn't, then only those boys who plan definitely ultimately to go to college for engineering work should be permitted to take this apparently much dreaded subject.

English ranks seventh among the most disliked subjects and twelfth among those failed. Is it the syllabus again? Quite possible. Boys who like to get their hands and noses full of grease do not generally get much thrill out of *Ivanhoe, The Idylls of the King,* Milton's *Minor Poems* or any of the other time honored and truly great pieces of literature. It's not their idiom that's used in these works of art. They read, if they read at all, the words and words only; the meaning and beauty escape them. Some present day Charles Lamb would do these boys (who do enjoy reading aviation and detective stories) a great turn by bringing them the masterpieces of English literature in the language of 1940 — if these masterpieces they must have. But must they have them? Isn't there, today, being written enough worth-while fiction, biography, adventure, to get the boys interested in reading? After all, that is, or should be, the main object of the English course. As they become acquainted with the live literature, some of these boys may and very likely many will turn to the classics. The classics should, of course, be given to the academic students, for they "can take it" and must, to get to college; the classics should also be kept on supplementary reading lists for all. Those who are interested enough and those who will remain in school long enough to take the English Regents examination will do the required reading.

History is sixth among the failed and eighth among the disliked subjects, and Economics is tenth and third. If the social sciences are to take and keep the prominence their teachers desire for them, rightfully, texts and teaching methods must be geared to the fifth decade of the twentieth century. Again, no attempt is being made here to offer a solution. The problem, however, is present and must be solved if the boys and girls are, when they leave school, to carry with them the very essential attitudes towards society which the social sciences are presumed to help them attain.

Accounting is second among the least liked and fifth among the failed subjects. This is due, principally, to the fact that the secretarial students are required to take bookkeeping for one year. The syllabus followed for these students is the same as that used for the accounting majors, no provision being made for differentiation. If the approach and requirements in the subject were modified to meet the specific needs of the secretarial students, the dislike for the subject would undoubtedly diminish with a consequent decrease in the number of failures.

And so on, down the lists.

Psychologists have repeatedly indicated the close relationship between success in the learning process and a sense of pleasure while learning. Not only does the student find more pleasure in learning when he enjoys what he is doing, but, far more important, he finds more pleasure in living for both mental and physical hygiene require a continued sense of satisfaction.

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THE PROGRAM FOR SCIENCE IN 1950*

About six years ago, I agreed to read a paper before the Wisconsin State Science Teachers Association, dealing with the status of science teaching in the year 1999. I have had many reasons since then to regret my temerity. I am sorry that I did not rest satisfied with just *reading* the paper. After all, sound vibrations quickly turn to heat at a temperature which makes the energy unavailable for useful purposes. But, the editors of your excellent journal seemed to be desirous of printing the words. Now, the article can forever come back to plague me. I take it, that my presence here this morning is to provide you with an opportunity to watch me squirm as I try again to predict a future program for science —this time for the year 1950.

Of course, it is easy to indulge one's fancy and dream about a rosy future; just so long as we project ourselves far enough into time. However, in indicating a probable development for the next ten years, it is necessary to pay stricter attention to present realities. What, then, is our status in science education? What present conditions and modes of thought are of sufficient significance to cause change in the imminent future or determine the direction of growth and progress?

AIMS AND VALUES

Nothing is of greater significance to a program for science teaching than the objectives we seek. The justification for nearly all that we do in the science classroom today can be found, I think, in three general aims of science teaching:

1. We wish to interpret for the child certain aspects of the world in which he lives.
2. We wish to give him an understanding of what we think are important ideas.
3. We wish to develop in him habits of reflective thinking and mental attitudes that resemble those of the scientist in his laboratory.

Although these aims would indicate a program of *general* education, actually we seem to confuse our purposes with those of *vocational* education. Thus, what other interpretation can we give to our concern with meeting college entrance requirements? Similarly, much of our exploratory science work and many of our "practical" science courses seem to look too pointedly toward possible future vocations.

It is the opinion of the writer that the next ten years will clarify much of this confused thinking. Secondary education will be dedicated to general rather than to vocational purposes. This is not to say that we shall pay no attention to the problem of earning a living. On the contrary, science in common with other subjects will furnish a keener understanding of how livings are earned and of the special skills, knowledge and traits, mental and physical, that different ways of earning a living require. All this, in terms of a growing knowledge on the part of the individual of his own interests and abilities. Yet, the objective of our secondary schools will be the *good citizen* rather than the *efficient bread-winner*, the intelligent *consumer* rather than the skillful *producer*, the worthy use of *leisure* rather than immediate, gainful occupation.

Thus, college preparatory courses will tend to disappear; for in a very real sense, such courses are vocational in their purpose. Besides, *all* children, rather than a selected *few*, now attend high school. Similarly, courses which train youth in too narrow a vocational field, will either be modified radically or they will drop out of existence. Industry and its methods are changing so rapidly that graduates of our vocational schools are likely to find themselves with skills for which there is no demand.

In support of this probable trend, may I quote from a survey just completed after three years of study, an expenditure of $500,000, and known as the "Regents Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in New York State."

> "What boys and girls now need is a broad general education which gives to all alike at least the same minimum essential tools of inter-communication and thinking, the same minimum up-to-date scientific acquaintance with the world in which we live, both natural and social, an appreciation of the culture and standards of our civilization, the beginnings of the ability to work with others, a common understanding and belief in the democratic process, and the desire to preserve and defend self-government."

On the subject of vocational training, the report continues as follows:

> "To make his way, as a practical matter, under this American system, what a boy needs vocationally is not so much 'a trade' when he leaves school at 16, 17 or 18, as a good general knowledge which underlies a family of occupations, an understanding of the scientific facts, and the economics lying back of these trades, the ability and character to work effectively with others, and an appreciation of the way changes come and how the individual may best adjust himself to them. On top of this, and taken at the very end, just before he has a real chance of getting a job, he needs an immediately marketable skill. When such a boy gets a

*Paper read before the Central Association of Science and Mathematics Teachers, meeting at Chicago, November 24, 1938.

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job he will acquire the necessary, particular knowledge and dexterity on the job as a 'learner.' In some fields he may even come back to school for special courses organized in coöperation with labor and industry."

Another basic aim to which science studies will make a major contribution in the decade that lies ahead is the democratic way of life. This contribution will come as a sublimation of two present trends and will be forced upon us by a world situation.

First, is the trend toward teaching science for the development in pupils of scientific habits and attitudes. We do not know too much about this; our thinking is still rather vague and loose. Certainly, no well-tried and successful teaching procedures have emerged; but many of us are becoming quite emotional about the "need" for such habits and attitudes in our kind of government. Thus far, we have formulated tentative definitions, analyzed the kind of thinking and problem-solving which scientists do, and have tried to pattern our teaching of traditional science subject matter so that pupils go through the motions of arriving at conclusions based upon objective evidence. And, thus far, we are neither certain of our success in the field of science nor of the transfer of such attitudes as are developed to life situations of the broader kind.

Second, is the trend to stress the social implications of science. "Science and Social Values" is a popular theme with both scientists and science educators. Science is blamed for many of our existing social evils. In defense, we say that science is unmoral; it is a two-edged sword; it can serve rather than degrade humanity, if only man will learn to use science properly. But, does not such a response beg the question? If we are to learn to use science in the service of mankind, then the science teacher must do something about it; nobody else will. It ill becomes the teacher of science to play the role of the scientist. He may like to withdraw from the hustle and bustle of humanity to his laboratory or classroom there to deal with scientific truths in a calm, cold, dispassionate manner. But, he can not; he dare not. His are not the prerogatives of the researcher, the pioneer on the frontiers of knowledge, pushing back the walls of ignorance, dispelling mystery. Once and for all, let us admit that we are not scientists; we are teachers. If science has social value, if it can solve social problems, if man must learn to use science, if he is not to be destroyed by science, then we science teachers must act and act quickly.

Now, it is interesting to note that the two trends referred to above are converging to a single line of action; and that progress along that line is being forced by a critical world situation. Never before has the democratic way of life been so threatened as it is today. It has its maddened enemies who deride reason as a worthy attribute of mankind, preferring the violent and unscientific procedures of war for the solution of problems. Democracy also has its cynical friends who ask if self-government is ever more than make-believe, if there is wisdom in mass voting, if there is justice in majorities and who suggest that perhaps might does make right. In the wake of such questioning comes insidious prejudice toward race, color, and creed—an intolerance of spirit that means the speedy death of science and its method.

What, then, can we expect as a reasonable outcome for a program of science teaching? Just this: we shall become propagandists for democracy. We shall frame courses of study, devise methods, and organize curricula in science studies which consciously aim to make pupils *prefer* the democratic way of life. Pupils will learn to hate war because war is bad science; they will grow more tolerant because prejudice is unscientific; they will demand self-government because it is a scientific truth that tyranny degrades, enslaves, and ultimately kills mankind.

THE CURRICULUM OF SCIENCE STUDIES

The next ten years will, of course, bring changes in the curriculum of science studies. At the present time, we are no nearer our goal of a twelve-year sequence in science than we were in 1920. We urge our case as emphatically as we ever did. We make pretty blueprints showing how six years of elementary science can be followed by three years of general science, and the latter in turn by a year of Biology, a year of Chemistry, and a year of Physics. Yet, not a single generation of pupils has lived through the experience of such a sequence of science studies. That being the case, we really do not know what kind of general science we would offer to children who have had six years of the right kind of elementary science. Nor do we know just what kind of Biology, Chemistry, and Physics would be suited to pupils who had experienced the sequential learning of the preceding nine years of science. Actually, our courses in General Science assume little previous science learning. To a large extent, Biology, Chemistry, and Physics develop their respective generalizations, as if pupils never had had contact with science subject matter before.

Hence, it is not difficult to predict that the future will bring a decided modification in grade placement of science concepts and subject matter. We are likely to find more and more of the material usually taught in senior high school grades, down in the junior high school grades, there to dis-

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place material that will seek lower levels still.

If it should be argued that difficulties of understanding, inherent in certain concepts, will prevent their displacement downward, the writer is inclined to reply as follows:

(a) There are really only a small number of science concepts that involve difficulty of comprehension that can not be overcome by proper methods of teaching.

(b) Sequential learning and a planned program of science experiences will make easy many things that now seem inordinately difficult.

(c) For much of our present grade-placement there is not a shred of scientific evidence.

(d) The history of much of our present grade-placement shows a gradual stepping down to concepts from college level to high school level to elementary school level.

The real reason why the downward displacement has not been operating very rapidly is because a twelve-year sequence in science has not been achieved. As a matter of fact, many are beginning to despair of success in this respect. Too many subject matters are pushing their claims upon curricular time. There is keen competition among subjects for what each describes as its "rightful place in the sun." Since this trend toward compartmentalization of the curriculum is being justly criticized, the next decade must bring about a new point of view toward organization in all subject matter areas.

The situation is especially critical at the secondary school level. Here, the competition among subjects is so keen that few students can find time for more than one year of science after general science. This is complicated further by the fact that the average boy or girl now in the high school is the average boy or girl of our population as a whole. Because such pupils are not easily interested in the college entrance type of senior high school science, we say they are non-academically minded, unfit for real science study. In desperation, we organize "fused" courses, we treat subject matter descriptively, talking *about* science rather than studying science itself. Where will such tendencies lead?

In the opinion of the writer, they can lead only to a recasting of our curriculum. In this process, two points of view will emerge:

1. The subjects, as subjects, must be retained because they contribute to real pupil needs. There comes a time in every pupil's life when he needs the kind of organized knowledge which the traditional subject matters provide.
2. The content and treatment of subjects should differ with different groups of varying intellectual interest and ability. This may mean two or three kinds of courses called Chemistry, Biology, or Physics. In large school organizations, this may lead to schools within schools or to smaller units each with a more or less homogeneous student body.

To meet the competition among subjects, the curriculum of studies must recognize the value of all contributions, with no sacrifice of any. How can this be done?

Let us for the moment assume that each major subject shall require four instead of five periods a week. After all, what basis other than that of tradition dictates the necessity that a major subject shall be given five periods a week. This opens at once the theoretical possibility that each of four, five (possibly six) subjects can appear four times a week on a pupil's program without overcrowding his school day or his school week.

Theoretically, then, each of six subjects can develop a sequential series of offerings from its own field, beginning with the Freshman year and ending with the Senior year of the high school course. In order to study the result of such a proposal, let us picture six horizontal lines, labeled Natural Science, Social Studies, English, Mathematics, Modern Language and Health Education. Let us also picture four vertical spaces crossing the horizontal lines, one space for each of the four high school years. Reading vertically downward through any of the columns, we can examine the educational experiences of the pupil. Now, let us assume that the content of the subjects in any one column has been carefully selected so that it meets the following criteria:

1. That it fit horizontally in the sequence, which subject matter experts have organized for the four years.
2. That its value be accepted not only by those who proposed it, but by the other subject matter departments.
3. That it be so inter-related that the pupil can live through a unified experience. In other words, the content from all areas, reading vertically, must be integrated around a number of vital life problems. Although the subjects will retain their identity, they can no longer be a heterogeneous collection of air-tight compartments.

Of course, it would be difficult to achieve such a program of studies without cutting away a lot of the dead wood in all the subjects. Time, too, would be saved by avoiding duplications. Since each department is given the right to approve or to disapprove what the other departments are offering toward the education of the pupil,

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the curriculum can not help but shrink to essential minima. As a matter of fact, therefore, much curricular time is freed for "electives." It becomes easy to provide for individual differences. Surprisingly enough, no subject loses very seriously in total amount of curricular time, as compared with the present time-allotments. The great gain, particularly for the natural sciences, is that it makes possible the sequence of science studies which we have been urging for so many years. Furthermore, the natural science in any one semester can become the "core" of the curriculum for the pupils whose interests and abilities lie in that direction. In the same way, for pupils of different interests and capacities, other "cores" or nuclei can assume the integrating role.

The writer proposes such reconstruction of the curriculum as a probable trend for the next decade. The program in science can thus become a continuous experience growing out of and built upon the first eight or nine years of elementary science study. Furthermore, such a program in science is not isolated from other major fields of the curriculum. There is then no need that science shall compete with these other fields for its rightful place in the scheme of things.

It may appear to some that such a program is unduly conservative. Anyone enamored of the attractive philosophy set forth in the recently published work of the Progressive Education Association, "Science in General Education," will probably look toward a much more radical change in the teaching of science. One can not deny the potency of the "needs" of the adolescent as determiners of curriculum and educational values. Nor can one fail to admit that certain characteristics of personality are more important goals than mastery of subject matter. Yet, most practical science teachers will admit, especially those who function in the large public schools, that the implementation of the "progressive" philosophy is as yet woefully weak. Indeed, things being what they are and teachers what they are, it will be closer to 1975 than to 1950 before anything like the "progressive" program in science can be realized, even admitting its soundness.

In summary, then, of the probable curricular development in science education, by 1950, we might list the following:

1. The achievement of a twelve-year sequence of science studies.
2. A more careful and comprehensive course in elementary science for grades 1 to 6, incorporating some of the material now found in the general science course.
3. A course in non-specialized science for grades 7, 8, and 9, which will continue the preceding science work to higher levels of experience and achievement.
4. A series of special science courses for grades 10, 11, and 12, which will lead on from general science.
5. These special science courses will be inter-related among themselves.
6. Especially important will be the relationships which the natural science courses will have with the other subjects in the curriculum. In some schools, and for some pupils, the science courses will become the core of the curricular experiences. In other schools and for other pupils the science courses will enrich and contribute toward the other subjects in the curriculum.

ARTISTIC TEACHING

With the change in philosophy and outlook and with the curricular developments described in the previous section, the year 1950 will bring marked progress in artistic teaching. Artistic teaching is here used in the sense of those procedures employed by the teacher which yield a maximum amount of learning on the part of the pupil.

It is interesting to note that the teacher of science has always been dependent upon concrete materials for effective results. Whereas, in an English or a History class, the teacher or a pupil is often the focus of attention, it is usually a natural phenomenon which occupies the center of the stage in a science class. The science teacher's art has always involved the intelligent, often clever, use of apparatus and equipment. Science and invention have forged new mechanisms for making abstract ideas simple and clear. All over the country, science teachers have been creating and devising new mechanisms for teaching purposes. Also, more and more attention is being paid to proper techniques in demonstration teaching. As in the case of superb performers on the violin or at an easel, the masterpieces are susceptible of analysis and their techniques are capable of imitation, practice, and mastery.

This trend to perfect the presentation of science concepts by way of the demonstration table will continue to grow. Aided by the development of adult education in which field science is often taught by lecture - demonstration, demonstration teaching will become a fine art by 1950. It is obvious, even today, that teachers pay more attention than they used to, to the kind of experiment they select, the way they arrange the apparatus, the order in which materials are presented, the devices for enlisting interest, creating problem-situations, furnishing evidence and for clinching conclusions. The science teacher of 1950 will be better trained

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in the artistic use of demonstration table equipment.

VISUAL AND AUDITORY AIDS BY 1950

In 1950, artistic teaching will have appropriated a great many of the newly developing visual and auditory aids to understanding. Slides and film-slides, movies and talkies, radio and perhaps television will all appear in the teaching-learning procedures of science classrooms. Every well-equipped science department will have its film library. Reels will be short—perhaps of five or ten-minute duration. They will be used most frequently as demonstrations are now used—to bring into the classroom an educative experience that could not otherwise be obtained. The costly experiments, the dangerous experiments, the experiments that require too difficult or too specialized a technique, the phenomena that occur in 1/1000 of second or those that last a week, a month or a year, phenomena at the tops of mountains, in the depths of the sea, in the bowels of the earth and in other inaccessible places—all of them will be brought to our pupils by way of the screen.

Most important of all, these films will be organized educationally by educators; not by advertisers or by Hollywood directors. At the same time, teachers will not try to assume the role of Hollywood directors and technicians. The educational films of the future will be the result of much closer coöperation between the motion picture industry and the science classroom.

As for radio education, we shall yet learn how to perform science demonstrations before the microphone so that the listener can "see" the phenomenon with his "mind's eye." It is strange that some of our popular radio comedians, who command audiences that number in the millions, should have learned before we did how to produce sounds that simulate sights. Ask yourself, next time you listen to Charlie McCarthy or Jack Benny, whether they do not succeed in giving you as clear a visual picture as they do an auditory one, of what goes on before the "mike." The great difficulty with our science programs "on the air," has been that they have neglected to utilize the one medium of science teaching which we science teachers have found to be essential to good teaching — demonstration experiments. Most of our radio programs in science are "talks," based falsely on the assumption that the radio can reach only the ear.

LEISURELY TEACHING

By 1950, we shall realize more fully than ever in the past, (and we shall act on that realization) that artistic teaching is, above all, leisurely teaching.

Our courses of study will be much shorter than they now are. You can not enage in an incessant drive to "cover ground" and at the same time develop reflective thinking, habits and attitudes of the scientist, and clear understanding of the big ideas in science. We have suffered from courses of study which are too long because we have been too polite with each other. Inquire into the committee procedures by which all of our syllabi have been constructed and what do you find? The favorite content of this teacher and the pet experiment of that teacher have both been retained because no one had the heart or the courage to say, "No!" Or if, as sometimes happens, the members of the committee are not over-polite to each other and engage in a bitter struggle for bits of subject matter, the emerging syllabus is still too long because it is a product of compromise, rather than of principle. The futility of this process as sound educational method is already becoming evident. The science course of study in 1950 will be short enough to permit of *leisurely* teaching.

MORE LABORATORY WORK

In my opinion, that famous issue: Individual Laboratory vs. Teacher Demonstration will be a dead letter by 1950.

Despite the so-called studies and investigations, laboratory teaching will receive a new birth; but the laboratories of the future will be radically different from those we know now. They will be more simply and more flexibly equipped. There will be places where pupils can really put questions to nature rather than little stalls where one manipulates things according to instructions printed in a manual or where one records "data" to prove laws that one knows already on the authority of the text.

The laboratories of 1950 will provide a place where the pupil can pursue truth in the manner of the scientist. They will embody the spirit of problem-solving as a teaching method. Pupils will go there, not once a week on Wednesdays, but whenever they encounter a problem that can be solved only in the laboratory. It will be a place where evidence is gathered; a place where it is essential that we record our observations faithfully.

EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES IN 1950

There are strong indications at this time that the science program in 1950 will give an important place to extra-curricular activities in science. The science club will become coördinate in value with the science class. The curriculum studies will be paralleled by a carefully planned program of extra-curricular activities. At other times and in other places, the writer has described the significant development of science clubs and science fairs in New York City. It is not necessary, therefore, to take time here to indicate the probable

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growth which such work might have in the next decade. However, a recent development might be mentioned here because of its bearing on what might be termed the beginnings of a Science Youth Movement in this country. The American Institute of the City of New York has undertaken to develop, on a national scale, its New York City program of Science Fairs, Science Clubs, and a Science Congress for boys and girls.

OTHER CHANGES

Time does not permit a full discussion of other aspects of The Program in Science for 1950. A full hour at least, would be required for the presentation of present trends at the Junior College level and the resulting probable developments in science teaching for young men and women to the age of 20. Inadequate though it may be, permit the writer to say at least this:

1. General rather than vocational aims will control education in grades 13 and 14. Concern with future life-work will of course be heightened during those years; but only in the sense that earning a living is essential for the well-adjusted individual in a democracy.
2. The science offering in the Junior College will undoubtedly bring greater subject matter specialization; that is, if an adequate 12-year sequence can be established as a foundation upon which to build. I venture to say that the College Freshman Orientation course in Physical and Biological Science now being developed in many colleges will be found to be unnecessary and a waste of time.
3. The science teaching in Grades 13 and 14, in common with the teaching of other subjects will put great stress upon digging knowledge out of books and out of the records which scientists have made of their laboratory research. Such self-education with its concomitant training in good study habits will go hand in hand with an extension of the kind of individual laboratory work which we have urged for the high school courses in science.

TEACHER TRAINING

No discussion of this kind can be complete without a consideration of the problem of teacher-training. But again, time will permit only a word.

There are two great issues in this field today. First is the troublesome question, "How much content and how much method?" Second, is the question, "Can the science teacher be better trained for his job in an academic college or in a teacher-training institution?"

In a sense we are dealing with only one question. Are we not ready to agree with these propositions:

1. That to know is not necessarily to be able to teach
2. That one must know in order to be able to teach
3. That one must know very, very much more than the pupil in order to be able to teach
4. That there is such a thing as an art of teaching
5. That this art is capable of analysis, imitation, practice and mastery
6. That only those who have themselves taught adolescents are qualified to deal with the art of teaching adolescents
7. That the mastery of an art demands practice with real school and classroom situations
8. That too much time has been spent on the question of *how* to teach?

If there is agreement on these propositions, then the teacher-training institution of 1950 will be a professional school and not an academic college; but like the school for doctors, the school for lawyers, and the school for engineers, the school for teachers will provide more study of subject matter and present a better balance between content and method.

CONCLUSION

I can not close without referring to a development in the science program in New York City in which our Board of Education has entrusted to me the chief responsibility. Two months ago, we opened the doors of a new school. We call it The Bronx High School of Science. It is the second in a series of secondary schools now being projected. The first was the High School of Music and Art.

Despite the special purpose suggested by the name of our school and by the fact that the student body is selected, we have much in common with other high schools. Thus, we seek to develop good citizens for the democratic way of life. We give pupils an understanding and appreciation of our cultural heritage. We provide certain basic knowledge and skills. We interpret the nature of the world and of society. We inculcate habits of critical and reflective thinking. We do our best to discover for each pupil the direction in which he may find his life work and an enriched leisure. We help him to maintain a vigorous physical and mental well-being. We deal, in fact, with problems in secondary education and we study its literature, its history, its philosophy, its aims and its procedures.

A high school of *Science* does not alter the goals of secondary education. It does offer a different method of attack. If the attack is to succeed, we should begin with

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a clear conception of what the method is and what it implies.

Obviously, we need a definition. Examples of the very best definitions are found in the natural sciences. It is a noteworthy fact that the perfect definition of a scientific concept always comes not as a primary event, but as final stage, after many preliminary definitions have been discarded as a result of experimental evidence.

Emulating the method of the scientist, we adopted a tentative definition of a *Science* high school. *It is a secondary school which capitalizes an interest in the sciences among adolescent pupils, for purposes of general education.*

The task of formulating the curriculum and procedures for such a school, with a selected student body, with a more or less free hand in choosing the faculty, with a reasonably good equipment, and in a large public school system is a thrilling adventure. It is too soon to say more at this time—we have only an entering class of 300 pupils. But, by 1950 we shall have had eight graduating classes to test the validity of the program for science which the writer has tried to outline in this paper.

MORRIS MEISTER.
Bronx High School of Science.

PEACE EDUCATION IN THE PHYSICAL SCIENCES

Prefatory Note:—In the February and March 1937 issues of HIGH POINTS, an account was published of the peace education program of the Manual Training High School. We were extremely gratified by the interest which these articles awakened in high schools of this city and in schools and educators elsewhere. Many requests were received for our peace education bibliography. It is because of this interest and because of the present crucial importance of this educational problem that we publish this article, which indicates a continuing growth and development of our program as it is brought within the sphere of activity of additional departments of this school.

J. L. BERNSTEIN.
Chairman Committee on Peace Education.

For many years, the major objective of science teaching has been the inculcation in the students of scientific habits of thought. That teachers have fallen far short of the attainment of that objective is due, to a large extent, to the fact that scientific method has been treated in a theoretical and abstract manner; pupils have not been given the opportunity to practise it and to apply it to everyday situations and problems. Too much reliance has been placed on transfer from the artificial atmosphere of the class room to the concrete cases of real life. In the program of peace education, we have not only a valuable tool in the educational process, but also a cause worthy of all our energies. Moreover, newspaper headlines remind us almost daily of the urgency of applying our energies immediately.

War is the antithesis of reason. War would vanish if there should emerge a race of human beings with the minds of Lavoisiers or Galileos in their approach to everyday problems. It should be our aim to turn out miniature Lavoisiers. It is obvious that our task is not an easy one.

The emphasis in all peace education — and particularly in the physical sciences—must be on the scientific method of thought. It is difficult to put into words the methods and the lines of reasoning characteristic of the scientist's approach to problems. Many teachers have tended to stress the purely formal side of the method by outlining fixed and permanent steps: thus, experiment, observation, theory, check experiment, conclusion. A formula too rigidly followed may lead to thinking very far from scientific. For our purpose, it is more desirable to stress the attitudes characteristic of scientific thinking. Of these attitudes, the outstanding ones are probably open-mindedness, careful weighing of evidence before coming to a conclusion, and reliance only on verified facts.

No recipe can be given for successful teaching of scientific attitudes, but opportunities occur in every subject and in almost every lesson for training in scientific habits of thought. There are, however, a number of general rules that may be of help. First, demonstrations and experiments should be arranged so as to give the pupils exercise in drawing conclusions from facts. Secondly, the importance of the control in experiments should be emphasized. Thirdly, certain historical characters and incidents stand out as shining examples of scientific thinking. A brief list would include

Chemistry—Lavoisier, Berzelius

Physics—Newton, Huyghens and the two theories of light, kinetic theory, theory of heat, Rumford, Joule, velocity of light, Romer, "nature abhors a vacuum," Torricelli

Physiography—Bruno, Copernicus, Galileo, Discovery of Neptune, Herschel, Adam and LeVerrier, velocity of light, Romer

The teacher must be on the alert for situations in the classroom which invite drill and exercise in scientific thinking.

But it is not enough to confine the applications of scientific thinking to classroom situations. After all, we are not trying to make

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scientists of our students; our aim is to produce adults with an intelligent, rational approach to the problems of life. No problem today is more urgent than that of peace and war.

We have set ourselves the task of developing in the students, through the application of scientific thinking, an attitude of peace-mindedness. It is also important, however, that the students acquire the ability to understand and resist the agencies leading to war. Above all, it is necessary that they —and we—build a program to end war.

Before proceeding to a consideration of the steps in the development of these attitudes and abilities, it is necessary to point out that we in the physical sciences work under an additional handicap, which is shared by teachers of typing, mathematics, biology, and in fact, by all teachers except those of the social sciences and English. It is this: the pupils come to us, if not eager, at least resigned to learning chemistry or physics—and only that subject. The "subject" becomes a boundary line beyond which it is forbidden to set foot. "A discussion of the problem of peace and war is not chemistry. We aren't supposed to talk about it." This attitude is perhaps a reflection of the traditional curriculum-centered school, where the subject was the all-important focus. But these are days of integration in education. The pupil, and not the artificial subject, is the main concern of the teacher. Furthermore, peace education can be effective only if it is made a school-wide process, with the coöperation of all departments and all teachers.

Hence it is extremely important for teachers of the social sciences and of English to emphasize that discussions of peace are as much in place in a chemistry class as in a history class.

The process of peace education may be analyzed into three interrelated parts:

1. Developing peace-mindedness.
2. Strengthening resistance to the agencies leading to war
3. Building a peace program to end war.

DEVELOPING PEACE-MINDEDNESS

Since many students glorify war, our first step must be to take the romance out of war, to show it for what it is—a horrible experience for soldiers and non-combatants, a period of anguish and suffering.

The physical horror is pictured in several collections of photographs, of which two are readily available — Stallings' book, *The First World War in Pictures* and a pamphlet, "The Horror of It." The use to be made of these records depends on the teacher and on the class. One method is to have a volunteer examine them and present a report to the class. In some cases, it may be advisable not to use them at all.

Perhaps a more effective way of debunking war is to discuss motion pictures like "All Quiet on the Western Front" and "The Road Back."

In the nature of modern warfare, there is another approach to the problem of taking the romance out of war. The days of individual combat and achievement of personal glory are over. One cannot rush, with upraised sword, against a 200-pound cannon shell. One cannot overcome singlehanded an airplane bomb. War today means cannon twenty miles away or airplanes a mile high; it means mass killings. Furthermore, non-combatants no longer exist; cities as well as battlefields, women and children as well as soldiers are targets for poison gas and bombs.

Another step in the development of peace-mindedness must be to show the cost and futility of war. The cost of war may be reckoned in human lives, in destruction of wealth, in the loss and diversion of productive power, in lives permanently damaged, in the burden of debt piled up, in the destruction or decrease of soil fertility, in the destruction of the fittest of the race, in its incalculable injury to morale and ideals. The cost may be translated in terms of energy wasted, in the physics class; of nitrogen lost to plants, in the chemistry class; of loss in soil fertility, in the physiography class; of insufficient food, clothing, shelter and schools, in all classes.

In showing the futility of war, two factors should be stressed. First, that wars never settle the issues which cause them; and second, that the victor, as well as the vanquished, loses by war.

In a Teachers' College survey of 1933, 58% of the children thought that foreigners are less intelligent than Americans. This is a by-product of the extreme nationalism with which their minds are colored. They must be led to see how great have been the contributions of "foreigners" to the development of the science they are studying and how "foreigners" have made possible many of the necessities and luxuries they take for granted. The international scope of science should be stressed.

The fact that the United States is dependent on other countries for many vital materials serves as a curb on violent nationalism. The following list is taken from Redfield's *Dependent America.*

Commodity	*% Produced in U. S.*
silk	0
leather	38
tin	0
rubber	0
nickel	0
steel	the materials needed to produce steel come from 30 countries.

These facts may be brought home more directly in the form of projects, consisting of charts, maps or exhibits of the materials imported into the United States from various countries.

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STRENGTHENING RESISTANCE TO THE AGENCIES LEADING TO WAR

It is obvious that if the students are to resist the agencies leading to war, they must first understand the causes of war. The teacher, without claiming omniscience, may present certain factors which, in the opinion of competent authorities, lead to war. The following list is not complete or all-inclusive; if either pupils or teacher suggest other causes, they should be discussed in accordance with the principles of scientific thinking.

1. Nationalism.
2. Imperialism and conflicting economic interests in the world market.
3. Activities of munitions makers.
4. War propaganda.

While all of these factors may be discussed to advantage in physical science classes, the last is especially well adapted to the subject matter of chemistry and physics.

The second step, then, in building resistance to the agencies leading to war is to develop in the student an understanding of the methods of propagandists and an ability to detect and resist their work. The dividing line between propaganda and education is very hazy. For our purpose it is sufficient to point out several widely agreed upon characteristics of propaganda. It is generally made use of by individuals or groups for their own selfish interests. It may consist of distortion of facts, avoidance of relevant facts, playing on popular beliefs, customs, superstitions and emotions, faulty reasoning, implicit or explicit fraud, half-truths, or downright lies.

An insight into the methods of propagandists during wartime may be obtained from such books as Irwin's *Propaganda and the News* or Ponsonby's *Falsehood in Wartime*. Engelbrecht's *One Hell of a Business* describes the propaganda activities of munitions makers' agents in peacetime. Reports by pupils on these books will prove both interesting and valuable.

The greatest benefit, however, will be derived from having the pupils practise detecting propaganda by analysis of advertisments and newspaper articles on various subjects. So many advertisements make false claims or distort facts or play on popular prejudices that illustrations are not difficult to find. One outstanding example is the case of Loft's candy vs. Baby Ruth candy. The former claims excellence for its candies because they contain no glucose; the latter because they contain dextrose. Glucose and dextrose are, of course, two names for the same sugar, and neither the absence nor the presence of this sugar is the mark of a better candy.

BUILDING A PEACE PROGRAM TO END WAR

This, is, in some respects, the most important part of our task; it is certainly our most difficult. Not the least of our difficulty is due to the fact that we are probably unable to agree among ourselves as to the best methods for solving the problem. This lack of unanimity, however, should not deter us from presenting all the solutions that have been proposed, and from discussing any others that may be suggested. If we have done all our other work well, the students will have a suitable background and a national tool for making their own decisions.

The foregoing has been of the nature of a general, theoretical basis for peace education in the physical sciences. No specific methods and rules have been discussed. Even if it were possible to present detailed blueprints, the desirability of such a plan is doubtful. What is essential is that the teacher realize the necessity of planning each lesson from the point of view of peace education. He must have as his main objective the inculcation of scientific thinking, of peace-mindedness and of the other attitudes discussed. With that in the forefront of his mind, the opportunities for the development and practise of rational attack on important problems will be quickly seen or created.

It is possible, however, to draw up a schedule of the units in physics and chemistry, showing the openings each offers for the introduction of peace education. Such a list follows.

If some of these references to the problem of peace and war seem to be irrelevant and dragged in by the heels on the basis of a slight relationship, it should be remembered that the question of relevance has two aspects. One is that of logical relevance; the other is psychological relevance. An approach may not be logically sound, but it is entirely within the province of the teacher to make the introduction of peace education psychologically smooth and relevant.

CHEMISTRY

1. Oxygen
   a. Lavoisier and the phlogiston theory — scientific thinking
   b. The nature of burning— scientific method
   c. Oxygen mouth and throat washes, false advertising —the nature of propaganda.
2. Hydrogen
   a. Use of hydrogen in dirigibles for war purposes
      1. Why helium is not made available for commercial use.
      2. Inhumanity and horror of aerial bombardment

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b. Example of propaganda—It is not generally known in the U. S. that England, not Germany, started the aerial bombardment of unfortified cities during the World War. (Ponsonby, *Falsehood in Wartime.*)

3. Atomic Theory—Electron Theory
   a. Scientific method—application to development of theories of structure of matter
   b. Natural laws—balance of nature destroyed by wars
4. Chlorine and Halogens
   a. Chlorine used as a poison gas, while people behind the lines suffer from a lack of it to purify water
   b. Berzelius and chlorine—scientific attitude
   c. Other poison gases—horror of gas warfare
5. Sulfur, sulfur dioxide and sulfuric acid
   a. Use in gunpowder — explosives important in peacetime
   b. Use of sulfuric acid to make munitions reduces the supply available for many other purposes
6. Ionic Theory
   a. Arrhenius refused Ph.D. for thesis on ionic theory —lack of scientific open-mindedness on part of his examiners.
   b. Explanation of conductivity—scientific method
7. Equilibrium, reactions that go to an end
   a. Equilibrium in world affairs
   b. Cause of war in attempt at changing equilibria of economic forces
8. Sodium and Potassium Compounds
   a. Chile saltpetre beds as cause of most South American wars.
   b. Use of potassium nitrate in gunpowder limits its use as a fertilizer.
   c. We have to import most of our potassium in the form of the chloride or sulfate — dependence of U. S.
9. Nitrogen and the Atmosphere.
   a. Nitrogen cycle—this cycle is broken if large amounts of nitrogen are removed for explosives.
   b. Calculate the amount of nitrogen wasted by the explosion of a 1000-lb. shell
   c. Helium, use in dirigibles —see under hydrogen
10. Ammonia and Nitric Acid
    a. Ammonium salts needed for fertilizer — yet large quantities of ammonia are converted to nitric acid for use in war materials
    b. Example of intolerance—Haber, inventor of synthetic process for ammonia, exiled from Germany because of race
    c. Nitric acid in explosives —undoes the effects of nitrogen fixation in supplying nitrogen to plants
11. Carbon
    a. Use in gas masks—nature of modern warfare
12. Fuels
    a. Importance of gasoline—hence conflicts for control of areas producing petroleum; e.g. Italy and Abyssinia—Causes of war
    b. Restricted private use of gasoline in European countries due to hoarding for war
13. Metals
    a. Importance of metals—diversion of huge quantities for war materials
14. Iron and Steel
    a. Struggle for control of iron deposits
    b. Steel alloys—bullet-proof armor and armor-piercing bullets sold by the same munitions company
    c. Activities of munitions manufacturers—in article Fortune Magazine, "Arms and the Man"
    d. Cost of 16-inch cannon and its projectile. Other purposes to which this money and energy might be put
    e. Materials from 30 countries are used in making steel. Charts and exhibits. Dependence of U. S.
15. Aluminum
    a. Aluminum in airplane construction — airplanes and war
16. Other metals
    a. Many are not found in U. S. and must be imported — dependence in U. S.
    b. Project—Table, chart or exhibit of materials used to make a telephone receiver and countries from which they come. See booklet issued by Western Electric Co.
17. Organic chemistry
    a. T.N.T.—newer explosives and modern warfare
    b. Nitroglycerine — How many pounds of nitrogen are lost to plants when a 1000-lb. nitroglycerine shell explodes?
    c. Soaps—propaganda in advertising
    d. Sugars — propaganda in advertising of candies.
    e. Drugs—propaganda in advertising

PHYSICS

1. Introduction
   a. Nature of science—scientific method
   b. Natural laws, consequenc-

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es of violating them, examples

c. Science is international, it knows no national boundaries. Examples.

2. Fluid Pressure and Buoyancy
   a. Submarines — relation to modern warfare; causes of war. Did German submarine warfare cause the U. S. to enter the war?
   b. Balloons — relation to modern warfare; propaganda—England, not Germany, started aerial bombardment of cities

3. Atmospheric Pressure
   a. Galileo and Torricelli; "nature abhors a vacuum" —scientific thinking and scientific method
   b. Weather and the barometer; weather maps—necessity of international cooperation.

4. Forces, Principle of Moments
   a. Equilibrium, operation of cause and effect.
   b. Application of equilibrium and cause and effect to social forces and in particular to the problem of peace and war.

5. Motion
   a. Galileo's experiment with falling weights—scientific method
   b. Action and recation—application to social phenomena

6. Energy and Power
   a. Calculation of energy wasted in explosion of 1000. lb. bomb.
   b. Forms to which the energy of an exploding bomb might have been converted
   c. Calculation of power wasted in one day of war —use assumed figures

7. Heat
   a. Nature of heat; work of Rumford and Joule—scientific method
   b. Kinetic theory, derivation and verification—scientific method
   c. Humidity and weather—weather maps as an example of international cooperation.
   d. Gasoline engines—gasoline advertisements—propaganda

8. Light
   a. Nature of light; Newton and Huyghens; modern theories—scientific thinking
   b. Maxwell and Hertz—scientific method.
   c. Velocity of light; Romer —scientific method
   d. Eclipses—international cooperation necessary for study of eclipses

e. Color—use in advertising and propaganda in general

9. Magnetism and Electricity
   a. Earth's magnetism; exploration—necessity of international coöperation
   b. Early quack remedies in connection with magnetism; modern advertisements on same principle —propaganda
   c. Different nationalities of great scientists connected with electricity — Italian (Volta and Galvani), Franch (Ampère), Danish (Oersted), English (Faraday), American (Franklin and Henry)
   d. Telegraph and telephone —improvement of means of transportation and communication makes for a more dependent social organization. Effect of war on such a society
   e. Telephone; chart, table or exhibit of materials used to make a telephone receiver and the countries from which they come. Dependence of U. S.
   f. Radio — its connection with propaganda

PHYSIOGRAPHY

Physiography offers excellent opportunities to emphasize the importance of international coöperation. Such projects as world weather maps, polar exploration and many others are possible only through the combined efforts of many countries.

Opportunities are always present for the inculcation of scientific habits of thought. Examples of scientific thinking are easily found in the history of astronomy and geology.

JOSEPH MINDEL.

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THE JOB SHEET—ITS CONSTRUCTION AND USE

CONSTRUCTION OF JOB SHEET

To meet the diversified needs of the young people seeking vocational training, retraining, or trade extension work at various levels, some form of individual instruction is essential. Individual lesson material has been used for a great many years in correspondence school courses and in certain private school courses, such as those given at Pace and Pace, the Hamilton Institute, and others.

The job sheet is a form of the individual lesson sheet which has been developed and used in the

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continuation and vocational schools with marked success. The mechanic must work from plans and specifications. The trade school can train budding mechanics by using a similar method, the job instruction sheet. However, its use has been more extensive in shop work than in the teaching of the related technical or academic work. There is need for the development of suitable job sheet material in our schools and the progressive supervisor must aid in the solution of this problem.

CLASSIFICATION

The job sheets used in the vocational schools may be classified as follows:

1. *Vocational job sheets*
   a. The Shop Job.
   b. The Operation Sheet.
   c. The Shop Information Sheet.
2. *Related Information Sheets.*
   a. Mathematics, drawing, and science related to job.
   b. Occupational information sheet.
3. *Academic Lesson Sheets.*
   a. English.
   b. Social studies
   c. Health and Hygiene, and so forth.

FUNCTIONS

The function and characteristics of these various types of lesson sheets are:

1. *The Shop Job Sheet.*

The function of this job is to teach the manipulative processes required in producing a finished product. The job sheet contains the following data:

a. The name of the job.
b. The principles underlying the job.
c. The names of the tools used in performing the job.
d. The materials needed for the actual performance of the work.
e. Drawings, illustrations, dimensions, from which the specifications may be determined.
f. A step by step outline of the production process.
g. Cautions wherever needed so that the student may avoid error or accident.
h. References to other information sheets, charts, and so forth, needed for proper performance of the job.
i. Questions—only those inherent to the job should be asked and for a specific purpose, to supplement or reinforce, the answer to be found in the job sheet or in the pupil's job experience.

2. *The Operation Sheet.*

The purpose of this sheet is to avoid repeating the details of operations common to a number of jobs. It is used as a reference sheet in performing the job. It contains the same essential elements as the shop job sheet.

3. *The Shop Information Sheet.*

The object of this lesson sheet is to extend the scope of pupil's trade knowledge in regard to tools, materials, and processes. For example, in wood construction, many jobs require the use of various saws; the shop operation sheet gives the procedure in using these tools in detail, while the information sheet gives the common kinds of wood saws and their uses. It contains the following elements:

a. Description of items and their uses.
b. Definition of terms.
c. Illustration of tools, and so forth.
d. Further application of processes.
e. References to trade catalogs, texts.

4. *The Occupational Information Sheet.*

The purpose of this lesson sheet is to furnish information covering the industry studied, the nature of the work, the training needed, opportunity for employment and advancement, working conditions. The sheet should contain the following:

a. Subdivisions of the industry.
b. Allied and related occupations.
c. All factors describing these occupations.
d. References.

5. *The Related Information Sheet.*

The purpose of this sheet is to supply related technical information, which may be grouped as follows:

a. Related mathematical principles and calculations.
b. Scientific facts and phenomena.
c. Kinds, characteristics, uses, classification, etc., of materials.
d. References to catalogs, texts, charts, literature, handbooks, and other source material.

Other types of lesson sheets which may be used are the Assignment Sheet and the Test Sheet. These serve to assign given tasks in relation to the other lesson sheets and to test the progress made by the pupil in mastering the contents of his lessons.

CONTENTS

The shop job may be further classified as to content, into two groups:

1. The elementary job sheet.
2. The advanced job sheet.

The elementary job sheet should contain all the elements in the outline given above. The advanced job sheet is a contracted form of the elementary sheet. Ma-

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jor new operations only are listed. Supplementary sketches may be omitted and finally, a working drawing and possibly a perspective of the finished product need only be supplied. For pupils of varying intelligence, it may be found necessary to use special devices in the preparation of the job sheet. For example, a lesson sheet using pictures only, was devised to aid slow pupils to progress in machine shop work.

The job sheets in related technical information should be correlated closely with the vocational work. This may best be accomplished if the stop teacher will prepare an outline of the related technical information required for the proper performance and understanding of the job or projects made in the shop. This type of lesson sheet is the most difficult to construct since the work does not involve manipulation and must be highly motivated to hold the interest of the pupil. Care must be taken not to repeat the errors of the academic schools. Almost all of the related job sheets in vocational activities will provide work in the following subjects:

1. *Drawing*—The subject should be treated with the view to developing the ability to make simple shop sketches, and to interpret blueprints. It is not necessary to prepare the students for actual drafting room experience. Questions should be included to indicate if the pupil understands the drawing and can read it well enough to perform the operation without a prepared list. The importance of legible dimensions, notations, specifications, and so forth should be stressed.

2. *Mathematics*—The average mechanic is not called upon to solve intricate mathematical problems. Emphasis should be placed on practical shop problems, dimensions, measuring devices, handbooks, weights. If the actual work does not require mathematics, omit it entirely.

3. *Science*—This subject should also be closely allied to the particular job. The principles underlying the construction and use of tools and materials, the manufacture of machine products, and the principles of biology, physics, and chemistry underlying tool or machine processes must be covered.

4. *Industrial History and Economic Geography*—The origin and sources of our raw materials, the means for transporting these to the factory or the consumer, the development of the industry, may be considered under this heading.

The construction of the academic job sheet is somewhat simple. Text and work book material may be used. The topic being of general interest, the work may be given either by job sheet, or orally. I believe the oral method using the socialized recitation, is better and more interesting. It prevents the pupils from complaining of too much writing. It arouses their interest and stimulates thinking. It provides a means of self-expression. It may be followed by a written summary.

FORM

The particular form or arrangement of the job sheets varies with the type of sheet. Many different forms are in use each of which has its group of staunch supporters.

THE USE OF THE JOB SHEET

The job sheets in themselves do not replace the teacher. They are merely an aid to individualized instruction. One of the weaknesses in correspondence school courses is the loss of the personal contact between the teacher and the student, and the loss of the social activity to be found in a class. The successful teacher, therefore, must not depend solely upon the job sheet. He must supplement it with personal assistance, class and group discussion, and other forms of mass activity.

INTEREST

The problem of motivating the job sheet is a difficult and important one. The shop job does not offer any great difficulty because it provides manipulation. The related technical sheet, however, is another matter. It may be made interesting by basing it on the vocational sheet. Dramatization, story telling, experimentation, and all the other modern methods of motivating an oral lesson may be used in the job sheet. Every effort must be made to make it interesting, for unless the student reads and appreciates it, it will not serve a useful purpose. The teacher should show the pupil how to use the sheet advantageously. He should point out the relation of the lesson sheet to the shop work. He should not answer questions to which the solution may be found in the job sheet.

READING

Train the student to read the job sheet before answering the questions. The teacher should not leave students entirely alone. If this is done, many of them will not read the sheet at all. The teacher should question the pupils at work to find out if they have read and understood the lesson sheet. This will enable them to determine the weaknessess in the lesson construction and lead to improvement. The language must be suitable to the intelligence of the student.

FOLLOWING INSTRUCTIONS

Workers must be able to follow instructions. The job sheet is a valuable aid in this training. The teachers must see that the operations are performed in their proper sequence. In the related work, the work should be properly arranged and the student should follow the instructions on the sheet and answer every question in proper order.

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INITIATIVE

The purpose of every job is to develop some additional ability or adeptness in the pupil. The teacher should note if this new knowledge has been acquired by testing the pupil on similar work. The pupil should be able to do it independently and apply the newly acquired skill.

USING TOOLS

Do the pupils use the tools properly? This will depend on both the construction and use of the lesson sheets. Incorrect usage is difficult to eradicate. Careless practices should be detected at the beginning. Warnings should be noted on the job sheet if wrong practice is generally observed.

SAFETY

In addition to indicating safety precautions on the job sheet, the instruction should be supplemented by making object lessons of unsafe practices as they are found in shop or class.

CLASS DISCUSSION

Discuss the job sheet with the entire class occasionally. Work out a job sheet from beginning to end with your class. Demonstrate how the work relates to the shop.

MODELS, CHARTS AND ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIAL

The job sheet must be supplemented with models, charts, illustrations, texts, and so forth. Pupils should be referred to this material which should be available for their use. This will aid them in developing the habit of using references.

ADMINISTRATION

Proper filing arrangements must be provided for the job sheets so that they may be distributed, collected, and stored without loss of time or effort. Pupils may be assigned as librarians to assist in this work.

MACHINE SHOP—RELATED TECHNICAL SHEET

Job 1.

When you receive a letter how do you usually open it? You probably do what most folks do, tear the flap or corner. In most offices, however, the mail clerk uses a letter opener. You will make one of these in the shop as your first job. The sketch, Chart I on the wall, shows how it will look when finished.[1]

This sketch is called a *perspective* or *isometric* drawing. Mechanics, however, use another form of drawing in which each face of the object is shown separately. Such a drawing is called a working drawing. It shows three sides of the object, usually the front, top, and end. These are called the *Front View, Top View* and *End View.* Look at Chart 1 in front of the room and see how these views are drawn.

[1] Sketches should be included on the job sheet.

To indicate the measurements of the opener, *dimensions* are used. These consist of three parts, the *dimension line,* the *dimension* or *measure,* and the *arrowheads.*

The mark (") represents inches. Look carefully at the drawing of the opener and answer the following questions:

1. How long a piece of metal is needed to make the opener?
2. What width metal is needed?
3. How far from the end of the metal is the center of the rounded end?
4. How long is the cutting edge of the opener?
5. What is the difference between a working drawing and a picture?
6. How deep are the grooves cut in the sides?
7. In what views is the length of the object shown? the width?

A measurement from end to end of any object is known as an *overall dimension.*

In laying out your work you will use a steel rule called a *scale.*

Get one from the teacher and also the information sheet on scales and see if you can answer these questions:

1. How long is the scale?
2. What are the largest spaces into which it is divided?
3. What is the smallest?
4. Draw lines of the following lengths under each other:

5/16", 9/32", 17/8", 2 1/32", 33/4", 2 7/32", 3 7/16", 1 13/32".

The letter opener you will make is made of *cold rolled steel.* Ask the class librarian for the American Steel and Wire Pamphlet on "Steel" and read the first three pages carefully.

Answer the following questions:

1. What is the difference between steel and iron?
2. What is pig iron?
3. How is steel made?
4. What is cold rolled steel?

Ask the librarian for a piece of cold rolled steel. Examine it closely. Try to bend it. Drop it on the floor and see what happens to it.

1. Does it break easily?
2. Does it bend readily?
3. Is it fine, rough, or coarse?

Cold rolled steel is soft and malleable; it bends easily and can be readily worked. That is why we use it.

Name some other malleable metals.

Name a brittle metal.

Get a geography text from the class library and make a list of states in the Unites States in which iron ore is found. Where are some of the steel mills located?

Submit your finished product for inspection.

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GETTING YOUR VISUAL INSTRUCTION EQUIPMENT*

No questions are quite so common among users or potential users of visual aids as "How can I get free films?" and " How can I get slide and film equipment?" Among the many who have only recently become interested, the latter problem is one of the most fundamental contained in the broader one of launching and developing a practical visual aids program.

Let us approach it first by asking, "What are minimum equipment requirements for a fairly large department?" The most widely used and basic types of visual aids today are the glass slide, the film slide and the 16mm. motion picture, in silent and sound versions. Provisions should be made at least for these.

You can now get a single slide projector fitted by attachments for the use of both glass and film slides and, if you wish, for microscopic slides. One of these, or a set of two separate projectors for glass and film slides is recommended.

Aren't lantern slides becoming obsolete? Such a question is frequently heard among people new to the field. The answer is that glass and film slides will always possess certain unique advantages that make them indispensable for many purposes. Long-wearing, inexpensive, easy to handle and to refer to individually, glass slides are capable of most flexible organization and are available in greatest abundance and completeness of coverage. Because they give a large picture and can be projected for long periods without damage, they are superior to films for detailed analysis of still subject matter.

Within the past few years, film strips containing successions of organized individual still pictures have been developed and are growing in popularity. Although they lack the flexibility of glass slides, they are light, small and much less expensive. Like films, they can be scratched, but they are superior to glass slides in that they are unbreakable. Until recently, film strips have given much smaller screen images, but this difficulty is being overcome.

A separate machine is required for motion pictures, the only type of visual aid suited to subject matter involving visible change or motion. Although there are very few sound film projectors in use within the system now, an experiment in evaluating them is in progress. They are more expensive, but sound projectors can be used also for silent projections of sound films. In any case, given one still projector and one motion projector, the addition of a portable, classroom, wall type, glass beaded cloth screen (about 6 feet by 6 feet) for each of these will provide a good basic coverage of the types of visual equipment.

How can these be obtained? Unlike elementery schools, high schools have wide latitude in requisitioning various types of non-contract supplies. Under the direction and supervision of the Committee on Textbooks and Supplies an approved list of projection equipment and films has been promulgated and is being steadily expanded. On this list will be found the essential equipment described above. Requisitions within the regular supply budget limits may be filled in the regular way for such materials. Equipment not covered by the approved list, may also be requisitioned in this manner.

How about slides and films? Although most of the materials on the approved lists are intended for elementary school use, they include many slide sets and films of value in many subjects on the high school level. These may also be requisitioned. In addition, a large and varied supply of films is available on loan, without rental charges. During the past few years a circulating library of silent films suitable for high school use has been developed within our system. In 1937, it contained 1688 reels of film devoted chiefly to science and geography but also embracing many other subjects. Ask your school librarian or the custodian of your films to let you see his copy of the latest inventory. A recent survey of the city high schools indicates that the following sources of free slides and films are most commonly drawn upon:

Bureau of Visual Instruction
108 East 52nd Street
New York City

American Museum of Natural History
77th Street and Central Park West
New York City

Visual Instruction Section
University of the State of New York
Albany, New York

Metropolitan Museum of Art
Fifth Avenue at 82nd Street
New York City

Y. M. C. A. Motion Picture Bureau
347 Madison Avenue
New York City

Museum of the City of New York
Fifth Avenue and 104th St.
New York City

To these should be added the newly organized United States

*[This article is another in a series devoted to vitalizing visual aid instruction. All suggestions should be sent to the author. We have been highly gratified by the response of our colleagues to this new venture. Ed.]

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Government Film Service, Washington, D. C., which supplies hundreds of excellent subjects from all federal departments, and the Harmon Foundation, Inc., 140 Nassau Street, New York City. A postcard to any one will bring you detailed lists of the films and slides that are offered. These represent only a few of the hundreds of sources of educational slides and films which may be drawn upon throughout the country. A glance at *Educational Screen,* the standard visual instruction magazine, will put you in touch with many others. Catalogues of free and rental educational films are published by *Educational Screen,* (64 East Lake Street, Chicago, Ill.), and H. W. Wilson Company, Inc. (950 University Avenue, Bronx, New York).

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THE MIMEOGRAPHED ASSIGNMENT SHEET IN HISTORY

For those teachers of history who are constantly seeking devices which will improve instruction, may I suggest the use of the mimeographed assignment sheet? Although this device has been used in the past, and, no doubt, is used today by some teachers, it is rather surprising that it hasn't been applied more universally, considering the many advantages claimed for it over the ordinary method of giving assignments.

Sound principles of education require that the assignment should include such items as motivation, aim, clarity, definiteness, anticipation of pupil difficulties, provision for individual differences, development of clear thinking. But have we ever stopped to think of the practical problems that arise when preparing and giving assignments? Around what central idea shall we organize the assignment? What provision shall we make for absentee pupils? How shall we find time and space if we should wish to put upon the board such material as graphs, charts and statistics around which the thought questions are based? Perhaps we are using too much time when giving the assignment and thus encroaching upon the lesson for the day? These and other problems usually arise for those teachers who give time and thought to the making of assignments, and for them, the mimeographed sheet may be the way out of the difficulty.

As a suggestion, the unit to be studied may be broken up into a series of lessons, each one containing such items as topics and pages, aim, vocabulary, questions to be answered, optional work for the brighter students, suggestions for outside reading, and any other material the teacher may wish to include. Ingenious teachers will find this an excellent device for including material which they would not ordinarily put upon the board when giving the assignment.

Among the many advantages claimed for this procedure are the following:

1. It serves as a guidance outline for purposes of study, summary and review.
2. The material can be presented to the students as a whole, thus enabling the teacher to give them a bird's-eye view of the unit to be studied. It lends itself to the application of the Dalton or Winnetka contract plans or to Morrison's unit-mastery plan.
3. It simplifies teaching considerably.
4. The teaching of history will become more vitalized and concrete since such material as charts, graphs, statistics and extracts from speeches and supplementary books can be included.
5. By providing minimum assignments for all and additional work for the brighter students, the principle of individual differences is recognized.
6. It relieves the teacher of the task of writing long, detailed assignments upon the board several times during the day.
7. It solves the problem of absentee pupils, inasmuch as the unit is divided into several lessons. Thus the students are informed in advance what the assignments will be for the next few days.
8. It saves time in the classroom so that more attention can be given to the lesson for the day.
9. It provides for better organization and more efficient classroom procedure.
10. Since greater care will have to be given to the preparation of the assignments, improvement of instruction is bound to follow.
11. It will encourage the pupils to greater effort and therefore better work should result.
12. It will give the teacher the satisfaction of having done his work well, and with this comes a feeling of accomplishment.

Objection may be raised that mimeographing assignments is too great a burden upon the teacher's time and energy. But when we consider the fact that the stencil can be used several terms and that it can be cut and mimeographed by selected and capable pupils, we will all agree that the task is not insurmountable. It requires only a little extra attention on the part of the teacher to prevent typographical errors from appearing on the stencil. If the complaint is that the assignments may become too stereotyped for such a changing subject as history, or is too rigid to handle the problem of variation in student ability or new tendencies in social science objectives, may I point out that the sheets can and should provide for individual differences, while providing new stencils every few terms will overcome the fear of those who may feel that mimeographing assignments will interfere with our training boys and girls to meet the problems of a changing world. As for the danger that this procedure will eliminate the

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personal touch that the teacher should give to the assignment, may I say that it does not prevent him from supplying each lesson with the proper motivation or from explaining such lesson in the unit orally.

The device here suggested should go a long way in making the work practical, concrete and simplified for our students. Whether we do or do not agree with this procedure at present, let us be scientific enough to experiment and give it a fair trial. I, for one, have found the mimeographing of assignments to be very helpful.

AN ORAL HEALTH PROGRAM FOR HIGH SCHOOLS

The "dental cripples" spoken of in current advertisements are formed during adolescence. This is the period when the ravages of dental decay are most active and pernicious. The treacherous part of this decay is the speed with which it progresses without letting its host know of its existence. Usually when pain occurs it is too late and the ailing tooth is ready to be extracted. Dental caries or decay can aptly be compared to cancer in its speed and detrimental effects; only too late does the victim become aware of its existence.

Dentistry however has advanced a step further in conquering dental caries than Medicine has in ridding cancer. We can anticipate with a good deal of certainty where decay will occur. For example we know that fully 95% of the children 16 years of age will either have a cavity or a filling in the first molar or have it missing. This is due to a developmental defect on the tooth. Furthermore, we can prevent all this by treatment. In short, for children, prevention should be the crux of dental care rather than reparative and restorative dentistry.

The following program outlines an adequate set-up for dental care during high school age. The program consists of dental health education, dental care for children of families of average means and dental care for indigents.

I. Education

A. What should be taught.

1. Relation of Mouth Hygiene to Physical Health
2. Facts on Mouth Hygiene
3. Method of tooth brushing
4. Dentrifices
5. The fallacies in dentrifice advertising
6. The limits of home care and dentrifices
7. Dietetics in relation to oral health
8. Preventive Dentistry in lieu of Reparative Dentistry
9. The appearance of a healthy mouth
10. Care of gingiva
11. Pyorrhea
12. Vincents Infection (Trench Mouth)
13. Systemic disease manifestations in the oral cavity
14. Injurious mouth drugs and washes
15. Importance of baby teeth
16. Common misconceptions on dentistry
17. Means used to avoid pain in dentistry
18. Emergency dental first aid
19. Fractures and dislocations in mouth
20. What to do in case of a toothache

B. Who shall teach?

1. Dentist or oral hygienist who has been trained in pedagogy
2. The dentist or hygienist should be a full fledged teacher in Department of Health Education
3. Should not be taught by the regular biology or Health Education Teacher who has only a smattering knowledge of dental health
4. Ample models, charts, motion pictures should be available to the teacher to adequately present material. These can be obtained from the American Dental Association

II. Periodic check up and follow up

1. Every pupil in school should be examined by a dentist every term
2. Pupils should be referred to family dentists for work
3. Special and doubtful cases should be examined by school dentist
4. No teacher or other lay individual on school staff should be entrusted to mouth examination of pupils. Only a licensed dentist or oral hygienist is capably trained to render a satisfactory examination
5. Special cases should report to dentist oftener than once every term in order to detect incipient decay
6. Care should be taken to avoid the "paternal" dentist who gives "o.k." notes to pupils without examination or by a cursory examination
7. Certain types of pupils will avoid dentists and use all types of chicanery and evasion. Some are told by their parents that filling teeth is worthless. Others by their very natures will try to put "something over." Usually these are the very ones that need dental care most
8. An adequate follow-up system should be instituted. These may entail family, dentist, physician, health counselor and teacher conferences.
9. A card should be filed for each pupil during his first term and records made each term of the number of fillings, extractions, prophylaxis. Such records for a

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large group are virtually non-existent. They are priceless for research. They render the student a fine service in showing him his own dental condition. In many cases such records lead to corrections in diet, toothbrushing and other detrimental habits. These records also serve to emphasize to the pupil meticulous care of the teeth and gums

III. PROVISION SHOULD BE MADE FOR INDIGENT PUPILS

1. Service rendered should be complete including preventive, reparative and restorative dentistry. An orthodontic and prosthetic service should be available in special cases
2. Such a service should be completely financed by government funds
3. Student should not feel he is a charity case

The benefits of oral health, general physical well being, personal hygiene and general psychological make-up of the child warrants this program. It should be tried.

IRWIN WALTER SCOPP.
Metropolitan Vocational High School.

AN EXPERIMENT IN TEACHING TYPEWRITING BY THE PART AND WHOLE METHODS

An experiment was conducted by the writer in teaching two beginning typewriting classes during the term ending January, 1938. One class was taught by the traditional or part method, and the other class was taught by the whole method.

By the whole method is meant that the letters of the alphabet are taught in the first few lessons. By the traditional or part method is meant the teaching of the letters on the keyboard in approximately six weeks.

The syllabus was carefully followed for the part method class. The new letters taught were carefully and thoroughly drilled upon before words and phrases were assigned for practice material. Great care was taken throughout to establish correct habits, correct finger reaches, and proper stroking.

In the whole method class, the first three rows of the keyboard were taught in the first three lessons. While it may be possible to complete this part of the work in one or two sessions, the usual interruptions during the first few days prevented this accomplishment in less than three days. Sentences were then assigned for practice material, the aim being to type meaningful matter immediately.

For purposes of comparison of the two groups, a record was kept of the weekly progress by means of accuracy-speed records. The record covered the number of words typed in five minutes, the number of errors, and the accuracy-speed % based on the Fiedler chart.

The median records for the two classes were then obtained and are shown on the following list. The whole method class commenced the five-minute accuracy-speed work during the sixth week, while the part method class commenced this work during the eighth week.

MEDIAN RECORDS—TYPE I

COMPARISON ON ACCURACY-SPEED RECORDS OF THE WHOLE AND PART METHOD CLASSES
TERM ENDING JANUARY, 1938

	Whole Method			*Part Method*		
Week	*Words*	*Errors*	*Per Cent*	*Words*	*Errors*	*Per Cent*
6	52	5	75	.....	.....	.....
7	54	6	65	.....	.....	.....
8	56	4	80	53	5	70
9	63	6	70	65	4	80
10	63	5	75	70	5	75
11	63	5	70	66	4	80
12	72	4	80	71	4	75
13	82	4	80	78	4	80
14	89	5	75	82	4	80
15	90	4	80	90	3	85
16	97	3	85	88	3	80
17	100	4	80	89	3	85
18	101	4	80	101	4	80

It will be noted that in the eighth week, the first week for which the records are available for comparison purposes, the record for the whole method class was 56 words with 4 errors, as against 53 words for the part method class, with 5 errors.

It is interesting to note that in the last week of the term the records of the two groups are exactly alike with respect to number of words typed, number of errors made, and the accuracy-speed per cent.

Another point of interest is the development of accuracy in the two groups. The accuracy-speed records were further analyzed to determine the number of pupils in each group that achieved a percentage of 65 or over and the number that failed to achieve that percentage. Some of these records are listed as follows:

	Whole Method		*Part Method*	
Week	*Passed*	*Failed*	*Passed*	*Failed*
8	24	14	25	11
12	24	9	32	5
18	26	7	33	2

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This record would indicate that the procedures in the part method tend for greater progress in accuracy than the whole method.

It may be noted that the registers of the two classes were as follows: The whole method class had a register of 40 and the part method class a register of 37. However, there were three chronic absentees in the whole method group, so that it may be considered that the registers were evenly matched.

CONCLUSIONS

The whole method, by enabling the pupils to learn the letters of the alphabet so quickly, permits a natural-use situation which enables the class to commence typing meaningful matter sooner. The whole method would seem to be of greater interest to the pupils because of the typing of sentences and paragraphs so quickly.

However, this method does not permit time to concentrate on the individual items of reaching and stroking the keys, posture, correct habits, and so forth. In this way it seems to sacrifice accuracy to some extent. I believe the whole method would be especially advantageous to the more capable pupil. It may prove a more difficult method for the slower pupil.

I believe that this experiment indicates that is is possible for the pupils to learn the control of the keyboard more quickly than formerly thought possible and that the drill practice may be made more meaningful and more interesting to the pupils.

IRVING SELMAN.
Franklin K. Lane High School.

TEACHING SCIENTIFIC ATTITUDES

Science teachers have been talking about scientific attitudes and methods for a long time but in too many instances have failed to utilize demonstrations so that a pupil will say to himself, "Here is one attitude or method that I have to learn in order to succeed." We spend a few periods on Lavoisier, Dalton and the Bohr theory, point out a scientific attitude or aspect occasionally during the rest of the year and trust in God.

If we are teaching for attitudes it should be possible to do it more concretely than we are doing now by a series of simple demonstrations that may supplement or supplant the standard ones that we use for teaching content and concept. These simple demonstrations should emphasize one aspect of the method or one attitude with incidental stress on the accompanying aspects or attitudes. In these demonstrations the teaching emphasis should not be on the answer but rather on the mental processes that the pupil used in getting the answer. When we show the pupils how their minds function and how it is possible for them to function more efficiently through the use of scientific attitudes then we are accomplishing the most important function of science teaching. These demonstrations should be scattered throughout the course but they might prove most valuable at the very beginning when they would help the pupil in organizing for himself the steps in the method and in crystallizing the desirable attitudes.

The two sets of demonstrations that will be discussed were used during the first two weeks of the term with classes that for the most part were just starting the study of chemistry. Many of the questions that were asked are included as are the expected answers. The main emphasis is always on seeing how the pupil thinks and many of the most significant answers were the incorrect answers with the subsequent investigation as to how the pupil arrived at the answer.

DEMONSTRATION I.

A. Object.—To help the pupil formulate for himself the important steps in the scientific method through a series of simple experiments. These experiments should enable the pupil to experience the scientific method of thought and work, to see the difference between ordinary thinking and scientific thinking and by directing the pupil into erroneous reasoning show how the scientific method could prevent this. The value of certain attitudes is impressed on the student because he has lived through and experienced a mistake and its rectification.

B. Procedure—The pupils had previously seen oxygen prepared by the historical method from mercuric oxide and seen the glowing splint experiment performed. Q. What is the most significant property of oxygen revealed in the experiment? A. Oxygen supports combustion.

After lighting a candle attached to a large cork. Q. Why can the candle burn in air? A. Oxygen is in the air.

Float the cork in a basin and cover with a large beaker or a suspended bell jar so that the water level is the same inside as out. Q. What happens? A. Candle goes out. Most pupils failed to record the rise in the water or the extent of the rise. Many of these admitted later that they knew that oxygen was approximately one fifth of the air. This was made the basis for showing the pupils that had they been carefully observant the mistake in judgment that they made would not have occurred.

Q. What has been going on in your minds? A. Some said 1. The candle goes out because there is no more oxygen. 2. Others said they asked themselves why did the candle go out. Q. Which is the more sensible procedure? A. In the discussion most boys thought it was most sensible to state the problem first before leaping to an answer. When asked how they

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thought out the answer, the following steps in the thought processes were brought out.

1. The statement of the problem.

2. The gathering or review of facts by observation, experimentation, reading, etc., particularly in reference to Priestley's experiment.

3. Correlation of important facts. Certain facts from Priestley's experiment were discarded as irrelevant to the problem.

4. Conclusion. Practically all the boys concluded that the candle went out because there was no more oxygent present.

The next step was to show the boys by experiment that they had arrived at the wrong conclusion by ordinary methods of thought and so teach them that their so-called conclusions are only guesses which are very frequently wrong. They can then see the necessity for the verification of hypotheses by further experimentation.

A piece of yellow phosphorous attached to a wire was exposed to the air. Q. Why does the phosphorous smoke? A. Because there is oxygen in the air.

It might be necessary to tell the class that the phosphorous is oxidizing but most boys got the idea without explanation.

Q. I wonder what would happen to the phosphorous if it were put into the air remaining in the bell jar? A. It would not smoke or oxidize.

Q. What shall we do? A. Try it. Q. But I thought this was a democratic country and since we have all agreed why should we bother trying it?

The answers given indicated that there still might be a reasonable doubt and the majority might be wrong.

At this point several boys were called up for close observations and reported white smoke which in a short while was visible to the entire class. Q. Why did the phosphorous oxidize or smoke before? A. Oxygen in the air. Q. Why does it smoke now? A. Oxygen must be present. Q. What shall we do about our previous conclusion? A. Discard it and look for new evidence.

By being shown that they had been led to make the wrong conclusion, the pupils saw that they had only taken a guess at the problem's answer and therefore step 4. in the thinking process was amended to read—4. Guess or hypothesis. I told the pupils that they had been deliberately and easily led into erroneous thinking and that this was being done to them very frequently in everyday life in newspapers, magazines, radio programs and in their ordinary daily contacts. Q. What had we done about our guess? A. Tested it by experiment. Q. What is to be done if the results of the experiment and the hypothesis do not agree? A. Either the hypothesis or the experiment may be incorrect. Therefore your experiment must be made foolproof by use of some form of check or control. This fact was brought out by referring to such biological experiments as the one to show that seeds need aid for germination. Q. What is to be done if the hypothesis is incorrect? A. Discard the old hypothesis and form a new one by going through the same thought process and using new evidence. This discussion led to the fifth step in sound thinking which should be 5. Attempt to verify hypothesis by experiment. Every experiment should have a check or control.

Q. If the hypothesis and the experimental results had agreed what would you have thought? A. That this was a correct guess which could be called a conclusion. This provides the groundwork for the next day's work on the scientific method as applied to the question of combustion by Lavoisier. It is easy to show how Lavoisier covered these steps in solving his problem. In step 6, a generalized conclusion can be revealed as a theory. Then in step 7 a theory, tested by time and further experiment can be shown as a law or doctrine and so the entire concept of scientific thought be formulated in the student's mind.

After the discussion of the scientific method, it is to be hoped that some pupil will say, "Well, why did the flame go out?" This shows that the pupil's curiosity has been really aroused and that he has learned that the scientist faced with a problem tries to find the answer. This problem may then be set up as one that will be answered at some time during the year when the pupils' knowledge is adequate.

C. Outgrowths—The pupil has formulated for himself and through his own experience the steps in the scientific method of thought. He has seen that accurate observation, suspended judgment, necessity for experimentation and the necessity for verifying hypotheses are attitudes that must be continuously exercised in the pursuit of truth and knowledge.

DEMONSTRATION II.

A. Object—To teach the pupils to look for cause and effect relationships and to seek the cause in the effects. Incidental emphasis is placed on such attitudes as accurate observation, suspended judgment, and the use of checks or controls.

B. Procedure—Light a candle about ½ inch long that has been placed in the bottom of a small basin or pan. A glass dish or basin would be better since it will let the pupil see more since the candle is below the top of the pan. Pour a small quantity of carbon tetrachloride down the side of the pan so that the bottom is covered to a depth of one-eighth of an inch. When the pupils were asked to explain why the candle went out the majority of them were helpless.

The following series of experi-

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ments were then performed after which the pupils were again asked to explain why the candle went out.

1. A burning splint was put into a large test tube.
2. The carbon tetrachloride was poured from the basin into the large test tube and a burning splint again inserted into the top of the test tube.
3. A small quantity of the carbon tetrachloride and a similar quantity of water were thrown on the blackboard.

After these experiments, most of the pupils arrived at the solution without much difficulty. It was then shown by a series of questions that the pupils could have thought out the answer for themselves had they been carefully observant and given themselves the time to think the problem through.

Q. Why can the candle burn in air? A. Oxygen is present.

Q. Why does the candle go out? A. No more or not enough oxygen is present.

Q. What is present around the candle? A. Some gas which does not support combustion.

Q. From where does the gas come? A. From the liquid.

Q. What property does the liquid have? A. It vaporizes easily.

When asked if they thought that water would act the same way there were varied responses. When asked how to solve the problem the class insisted on the experiment. Another interesting variation of the experiment may be performed by putting a small piece of dry ice in the basin with the burning candle.

Outgrowths—This series, by setting up a problem that is very confusing to the uninitiated and then by demonstrating the answer, gives the pupils the chance to make the cause and effect connection by themselves. Then by showing that the cause may be sought for in the effect and frequently found, the necessity for careful observation and careful analysis has been made apparent.

JOSEPH F. CASTKA.
Boys High School.

FORMING A CIVIL SERVICE CLUB

The plight of the high school student approaching graduation has become, in recent years, indeed a sorry one. Faced by a dearth of economic opportunities, and the possibility of contributing to his own support if higher education or training is desired, he soon casts longing eyes in the direction of a government position. Unfortunately, he is not alone in this desire. The fifty-fourth annual report of the United States Civil Service Commission for the year ending June 30, 1938 shows that 843,887 persons took examinations for 54,799 jobs last year. Thus the applicant's chance of obtaining a position averages one in sixteen. Approximately the same ratio holds true for city and state examinations.

In an attempt to meet the crying need for information and preparation, the Social Studies Department of Seward Park undertook the formation of a civil service club. After a term of experimentation, facilitated by the active cooperation and helpful suggestions of J. Frank Sayre, Chairman, we finally evolved a program which appears to fulfill the requirements.

We solved the problem of membership enrollment by limiting it to seniors and arista members. This group represents a cross-section of those students most likely to benefit from joining such an organization. At the same time, enrollment is kept within reasonable figures.

Speakers prominent in civil service circles are invited to address the group on different phases of the topic "opportunities for high school graduates in civil service." The addresses are delivered on alternate weeks and there is a discussion of the points of view presented on following weeks. When the students have acquired a general knowledge of civil service, its method of operation, and the types of positions available, they are ready for the service of the *pièce de résistance*. From any one of a number of easily available civil service booklets, past questions are mimeographed and prepared for distribution at each meeting. As the students enter the meeting room, they receive copies of the questions and at once begin to answer them. The review takes place on the blackboard, each student making his own corrections and keeping them in a looseleaf notebook kept solely for that purpose. We thus try to approximate actual examination conditions and questions.

As a further aid, a civil service bulletin board is maintained on which all news relating to civil service is posted. Besides the primary objective of the club, another aim is realized. The fact is brought home that, to a large extent, the questions on civil service examinations are a synthesis of such subject as history, civics, English, and commercial arithmetic. What more potent motivation could be desired?

LEON SCHULMAN.
Seward Park High School.

SOME REASONS FOR THE POOR RESULTS IN THE COMPREHENSION OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Results of the reading lesson in the foreign language are very discouraging. This is often true despite the profound care with which we have motivated the lesson, and have prepared for pleasant and successful comprehension by previous explanation of all (?) apparent difficulties.

The purposes of the study below were to discover (1) whether the foreign words which are assumed by the authors of reading texts as

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unnecessary to explain because of their similarity in form to English cognates are really recognizable by the students and (2) whether the students know the meaning of these English cognates. For example, given the Spanish word "sereno," can the pupils, in the first place, discern its relationship to "serene" and, secondly, do they know the meaning of the English word "serene"?

Three Spanish readers for beginners were selected because of the vocabularies at the beginning of each story which were to be mastered by the students before the actual reading. From the first five stories of each book, the writer selected words which the students were supposed to be able to recognize because of their similarity to the English cognates. Words spelled exactly alike in English and Spanish or differing in only one letter, were omitted. The test was then administered to two beginning Spanish classes during the final week of the term. The pupils of class X were second language students; and those in class Y were first language students. "Repeaters" were not permitted to participate. Exact meanings or proper parts of speech were not demanded. To these same classes a second test was administered consisting of the English cognates of the Spanish words of test 1. The pupils were now required to show their understanding of these English words.

	TEST I *Meaning of Span. words*	TEST II *Meaning of Eng. Cognates*
Class X (2nd language Pupils)	53 per cent	83 per cent
Class Y (1st language Pupils)	56 per cent	83 per cent

For purposes of comparison, similar tests were devised from a popular Spanish reader intended for pupils of fourth term Spanish. The authors of this text book had simplified the story by a "wide use of synonyms logically associated with English words." These words are not included in the vocabulary at the beginning of each chapter for it is taken for granted that the association can be made by the students. The tests were taken by two Spanish 4 classes with the following results:

	TEST I *Meaning of Span. words*	TEST II *Meaning of Eng. Cognates*
Class A	36 per cent	62 per cent
Class B	38 per cent	70 per cent

Although the marks in Test I (1st and 4th term classes) would undoubtedly increase if tested in context with the rest of the story, yet the results are so low as to demonstrate one definite cause for poor comprehension, especially in the texts for more advanced students where many more new words are introduced per page. Teachers and writers of text books must not assume that pupils know the meaning of a word merely because of its similarity to some English word, very often of low frequency. The poor results in Test II indicate that even if pupils can associate the foreign word with its English cognate because of the similarity in appearance, to insure true comprehension, it is most essential that we discover whether the English cognate is merely a word that they had once seen or heard, or whether the pupils have a true conception of its meaning.

The difference between the results of Test II and Test I may be decreased by a definite intent to teach word building in Spanish, including a knowledge (even if only recognitional) of the relative prefixes and suffixes between the foreign language and English, plus a knowledge of a few of the more important changes (d-t; b-p; etc.) within the word. The fact that those who had had a previous language (class X) did not surpass those who had not had any previous training in discerning such relationships, may possibly be explained because of insufficient practice in observing these relationships.

NOAH ABRAMOWITZ.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

SOCIAL DANCING

One justification for extracurricular work has been that it is an extension of the curricular work. Extracurricular work can be justified in another way—it may mold and shape the curriculum. In the Seward Park High School, the Executive board of the General Organization, popularly known as the G. O. Council, begged for social dancing for boys and girls as part of the regular health education work. The difficulties that presented themselves were those of programming, because parallel periods in health education for boys and girls were necessary, and of the disposition of the heterogeneous class groups other than the term group desired, taking health education during the same period. The G. O. Council was promised careful consideration of the matter and fulfillment of their request if only it could be arranged. A solution of the difficulties looked dubious. But the difficulties were finally ironed out and last term social dancing began to be taught during the regular school day at Seward.

Since the idea was an experiment, it was decided to try it in one term only. That resolved itself to the seventh term in preparation for the eighth term where dancing is almost a sine qua non for senior activities: seniors "tea-dance," seniors "mid-term dance," seniors "prom." And the experiment was to be carried on for only seven weeks because syllabus requirements, health inspection, and other duties had to be considered.

Then social dancing began. Miss Mars, Chairman of the Girls Health Education Department arranged with Mr. Ross, Chairman on the boys' side, to send the seventh term boys to the girls

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of student assistants who checked the attendance. Those girls who were not in the seventh term were sent out of the girls gymnasium to swimming and hygiene classes. Thus the road was clear.

Each boy was given a mimeographed sheet on which were stated the reasons for the course, the amount of work to be covered and a reminder of the need for cooperation and courtesy in the new undertaking. The two teachers who were giving the social dancing course last term had themselves taken work under the person whom they believed to be the best instructor of social dancing in the city. When they began the course, they expected to teach the waltz, foxtrot and shag. For lack of time, they did not, however, teach the shag.

In the girls gymnasium the boys and girls were lined up and the steps and the correct dancing position were taught as they stood in line. After they seemed to know the steps, they were assigned to partners. There was no option as to whom a boy might pick as a partner. Even when the students were paired off to dance, they had to observe the pattern of the dance as taught. They were not permitted to deviate from it until the end of the course. To bolster their insistence on no deviation from the pattern until the steps were learned, teachers quoted as their authority the instructions of the teacher under whom they themselves had studied modern dancing.

The attitude of the girls, practically all of whom could dance, is easily guessed. The boys who might be thought to have taken the course lightly were most earnest in their efforts to learn to dance and at the end of the seven weeks every boy felt considerable satisfaction with his achievement, for he could dance.

The G. O. Council of Seward which had asked for the course was very much satisfied with the results and this term the course is being repeated for the present seventh term students. This term two versions of the foxtrot, the waltz, and the Lambeth Walk will be taught. The teachers in the Girls Health Education Department will each take a class in social dancing.

BESSIE STOLZENBERG.
Seward Park High School.

CORRELATION BETWEEN ABSENCE AND FAILURE IN SCHOOL SUBJECTS

Last year (1937-38), all absences of eight days or more were investigated. During the course of the investigation, 269 students and their parents were interviewed. Thirteen of these students left school before the close of the term in June. Analysis was made of the school records of the 256 pupils remaining at the close of the term with the following results:

88 students failed no major subjects

56 pupils failed in one major subject

54 pupils failed in two major subjects

39 pupils failed in three major subjects

19 pupils failed in four major subjects

In view of the number of days absent, which ran from eight to forty days, the above scholastic record seems excellent and while it indicates that presence in school is very important it does not necessarily prove that there is a very high degree of correlation between absence and scholastic attainment.

However, of these same 256, seventy students failed in Health Education. This means that approximately one quarter of the pupils who are absent excessively also fail in Health Education (as against 2% of the entire school population in Health Education) which seems to indicate that the students are justified in staying home. This in its turn should bring added incentive to our work in preventing failures in Health Education.

ANNA H. FINK.
Grover Cleveland High School.

MOTION PICTURE DISPLAY MATERIAL FOR USE IN SCHOOLS AND LIBRARIES

Most of us are familiar with the usual methods of stimulating the reading interests of high school students by means of book jacket displays, posters, typewritten or mimeographed book lists, and book talks. Some of us have even noticed and rejoiced at the good influence of motion pictures on the reading of books by students. But few of us are aware of the many sources of free, or comparatively free, motion picture display material at our disposal.

The Motion Picture Producers and Distributors of America, Inc., 28 West 44th Street, New York City, Community Service Department, sends free to school librarians and English teachers, a copy of "Motion Picture and the Family," a monthly illustrated pamphlet on current movies, and also a pamphlet called, "Selected Motion Pictures," an evaluation of current films by west and east coast preview committees. When put up on the bulletin board, these attract much attention and elicit a great deal of student interest.

The local R K O and Loew's theatres are another source of material. On request, research photograph exhibits are sent for use by libraries and schools. At the present time, exhibits on the following movies are available: *Marie Antoinette*, which can be displayed with books of biography and his-

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Men with Wings, which can be used as a tie-up with books on aviation; *Drums*, with Sabu, which can be shown with books on India and other far away places; and *If I Were King*, which can advertise the book by the same name.

The Educational and Recreational Guides, Inc., Room 1418, 1501 Broadway, New York City, will furnish, at a nominal cost:

1. MINIATURE STILLS
   - *The Good Earth*
   - *Captains Courageous*
   - *The Tale of Two Cities*

   These make attractive displays.

2. GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDES
   - *The Citadel*
   - *Drums*
   - *Gunga Din*
   - *If I Were King*
   - *Marie Antoinette*
   - *Men With Wings*
   - *Sixty Glorious Years*
   - *Victoria the Great*

   These pamphlets describe how the film is made, contain questions on problems involved, and suggested activities as a follow-up of interest in these problems. In the case of The Citadel group, medicine and hospitalization plans are discussed.

3. PHOTOPLAY STUDIES

   Appreciative study outlines on *As You Like It, Romeo and Juliet*, and others.

The following back numbers of guides are available as single copies, in quantity, or by the series:

VOLUME 1, 1935

- *Anna Karenina*
- *Fang and Claw*
- *Last Days of Pompeii*
- *Les Misérables*
- *Midsummer Night's Dream*
- *Mutiny on the Bounty*
- *Peter Ibbetson*
- *Scrooge*
- *Seven Keys to Baldpate*
- *Tale of Two Cities*
- *Three Musketeers*

VOLUME 2, 1936

- *As You Like It*
- *Charge of the Light Brigade*
- *Daniel Boone*
- *Green Pastures*
- *Last of the Mohicans*
- *Mary of Scotland*
- *Nine Days a Queen*
- *Plough and the Stars*
- *Winterset*

VOLUME 3, 1937

- *Captains Courageous*
- *Emile Zola*
- *Good Earth*
- *Heidi*
- *Maid of Salem*
- *Quality Street*
- *Soldier and Lady (Michael Strogoff)*
- *Stage Door*
- *Toast of New York*
- *Victoria the Great*
- *Wells Fargo*

In connection with this method of reading stimulation, English teachers and librarians may find helpful the pamphlet, *What Shall We Read About the Movies?*, an annotated bibliography by William Lewin, Chairman of the Committee on Photoplay Appreciation of the National Council of Teachers of English. The price of a single copy is twenty-five cents; two to ten copies, twenty cents.

Few school libraries and English teachers can use all the display material above mentioned, but if selection is based on a consideration of local needs and book availability, the librarian or teacher will be gratified at the response of students to this means of reading stimulation. At any rate, such has been the experience of the writer.

FANNIE DUBOFSKY.
James Monroe High School.

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND NOTES

AN OPEN LETTER TO ADOLF HITLER, CHANCELLOR OF GERMANY

From the Metropolitan Chapter and Junior Auxiliary of the American Association of Teachers of German

We teachers of German in the City of New York have observed with unspeakable horror what you and your followers have done to Germany, once known as the Land of Poets and Thinkers.

You have destroyed its democracy, with all that it implies—freedom of speech, freedom of the press, freedom of worship, freedom to teach and to learn.

You have destroyed all free organizations of labor and enslaved the German worker.

You have attacked not only Jews, but Catholics and Protestants, who have been unwilling to accept the doctrines you and your followers are teaching.

You have attempted to foist upon the German people a false doctrine of race, which you have used to justify the worst of iniquities.

You have driven into exile or shut up in concentration camps those who dissented from your practices, among them the greatest thinkers, poets, artists, musicians, scientists modern Germany has produced. We need but mention Thomas Mann, Heinrich Mann, Albert Einstein, Ernst Toller, Sigmund Freud, Max Reinhardt, as examples. You can find the complete list in the files of your secret police.

(At a special meeting held on November 27, 1938, the Metropolitan Chapter and Junior Auxiliary of the American Association of Teachers of German unanimously adopted the above open letter to Adolf Hitler.)

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You have lately reached the depths of barbarism in the open pogroms which you have planned and instigated against the Jewish minority in Germany, and in your new decrees which leave those Jews who cannot migrate little recourse but starvation or suicide. In a word, you have acted in a manner which the President of the United States correctly characterized when he said: "I myself would not have believed that such things could happen in the twentieth century."

It may be asked: Why do we teachers of German continue to teach the German language, in view of the iniquities which you and your followers have committed and continue to commit against civilization itself? Our answer is this:

We are teaching German because it is the language of those millions of oppressed people in Germany who will one day manifest the horror, which today they dare not express, by sweeping away your barbarous regime. Then Germany will once more take an honored place among the civilized nations of the world.

We are teaching the German language because it is the language of the great men Germany has produced in the past — Lessing, Goethe, Schiller, Heine, Beethoven —men who would find no place in present day Germany except in a concentration camp.

We are teaching the German language because the cultural achievements of Germany are permanent and cannot be destroyed by any political regime, not even by the present reign of horror and madness. German culture is not a Nazi product.

We are teaching the German language because we wish to preserve the finest and noblest products of the German spirit against that day when the German people will rise in their might and sweep you and your followers into oblivion.

We are teaching the German language because of the great contributions that German culture has made to our own American civilization through its literature, music, science, art, and its educational and social ideals.

In conclusion we teachers of German wish to inform you that we bitterly resent those agents of yours in the United States, who, through such organizations as the German-American Bund, seek to stir up race hatred and to break down our democratic institutions. Together with the millions of Americans of German descent who loathe your regime, we shall oppose them with every means at our disposal.

JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CONFERENCE

New York University announces the Fifteenth Annual Junior-Senior High School Conference to be held at New York University March 17 and 18, 1939. Orlie M. Clem is chairman.

TEACHING TOLERANCE A MAJOR PROBLEM IN 1939

"Teaching tolerance is a major problem of 1939 for American education," said Commissioner of Education J. W. Studebaker in a statement issued at the Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior.

"I congratulate the New York City Board of Education on its recent action to promote school assemblies and instruction in general leading to racial and religious tolerance and understanding.

"I commend the action of the New York City Board of Education to the attention of school boards throughout the Nation.

"It would be a serious error in judgment to assume that the people of the United States must defend themselves only against the military and economic pressure of totalitarian states. It is quite as important that we strengthen the defense of our democratic ideas and practices against the inroads of the doctrines which are so thoroughly lacking in both scientific and spiritual justifications. To undertake this task is the historic duty of the schools of our Nation.

"One hundred years ago societies of German immigrants petitioned Congress for permission to set up separate German states in the United States similar to Swiss cantons. Congress rejected these petitions.

"Instead, Congress had already set aside one township in every section in the Northwest Territory to provide funds for establishing schools to educate children of pioneers and immigrants. Each new state, as it was formed, set up a state school system to further insure the education and the Americanization of the flood of immigrants.

"We speak of the United States as a great melting pot. Actually, every school is a melting pot refining human alloys with the ores of a common language and of common experiences.

"Even in the midst of the turmoil of the Civil War, Congress again acted to extend our educational system and insure that this system would build a common heritage based on democratic habits and customs. Congress passed, and Abraham Lincoln signed, the Morrill Act which created our great system of land grant colleges and universities. These institutions also have proved bulwarks of democracy in a nation composed of representatives of nearly every race and nationality in the world.

"The Office of Education has seen clearly that organized education in the United States is challenged to prove its value as a democratiser. To help both teachers and parents as well as school children, the Office of Education has planned and launched a series of 26 nation-wide broadcasts which show the great contributions which men and women of various races

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and nationalities have brought to our shores.

"This series, called AMERICANS ALL—IMMIGRANTS ALL, tells not only the contributions of the English, the Scandinavian, Irish and Italian, French, the Netherlanders, and others, but also the interweaving of these contributions. It shows how, for example, the hymns brought by the English and Scotch colonists were converted by the genius of the Negro into spirituals; the spirituals were then used by composers of Russian Jewish and other origins as the basis of our finest modern music; this music is then played for us by orchestras composed of the sons and daughters of men and women of many races and nationalities.

"This series of broadcasts has been created by the Office of Education with the coöperation of the Columbia Broadcasting System and the Service Bureau for Intercultural Education. Gilbert Seldes is writing the scripts. Ninety-eight CBS stations present this program each week. Although the program comes on Sunday at 2:00 o'clock, this time proves no hindrance to use for school purposes.

"The Office of Education is already negotiating with representatives of the New York City public school system on ways and means by which this program can be used in the current campaigns to increase tolerance and understanding among the school children of the City of New York.

"Current controversies make two programs scheduled within the next few weeks of wide interest and usefulness. The first of these is devoted to the contributions of the nation which has sent more immigrants to the United States than any other—Germany. This program will be presented on January 15. Of outstanding significance also will be 'Jews in the United States,' to be presented on February 5.

"I urge the members of school boards, school officials, and teachers of the United States to give immediate attention to the problem of adapting the school curriculums and schedules to assure an adequate and meaningful treatment of the ideas, aims, and spirit of democracy. There is no greater issue today before American education or before the American people.

"I am glad to announce that the values of this series of 26 broadcasts under the title of AMERICANS ALL — IMMIGRANTS ALL are being preserved for schoolroom use. Each program is being recorded and within a short time I expect to announce the terms on which these records can be available both for public address system and phonograph use.

"The Office of Education stands ready to help school officials and school boards in every possible way to strengthen democracy."

FILM PRODUCTION IN SCHOOLS INCREASING

Within a few years, every school in the country will be making films of its own, Hardy R. Finch of the Greenwich (Connecticut) High School predicted at the annual meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English in St. Louis, November 24-26, 1938. He based his statement upon a survey which showed that today over 200 schools are engaged in production of films. The productions have included literary works, student-written scenarios, and pictures based on school and community activities, local history, imaginary trips, health, safety, and guidance.

Pupils derive many benefits from the making of school motion pictures, according to Miss Eleanor Child, also of the Greenwich High School, who reported that a school film can be made for an initial investment of $125, provided the school has a school projector and screen. This sum allows only for a second-hand camera, Miss Child explained. "In estimating the probable cost of a picture," she said, "we allow an average of $6 per 100 feet of film, or four minutes of running time. Funds for expenses are raised by showing rented entertainment films and by charging admission to the school-made movies."

Roger Hill, headmaster of the Todd School for Boys, Woodstock, Illinois, suggested that schools film their Shakespearean productions, using a silent camera. Sound recordings could be made separately and synchronized with the picture, he added. "The chief educational value of the talking picture technique," Mr. Hill said, "is that a good performance is jelled. It is available for the inspiration of hundreds of other directors and thousands of other youngsters. I believe it can and will be a great new educational tool."

INTERNATIONAL FRIENDSHIP LEAGUE

The International Friendship League has been organized for the purpose of promoting better understanding among the youth of the world through personal correspondence. It is non-political and non-sectarian.

The League is officially recognized as the headquarters for international student correspondence and is endorsed by the Ministries of Education in 86 countries and territories and the Departments of Education in each of the forty-eight states.

Because our present age, more than any other in the world's history, is intensely concerned with the problem of international relations, parents and teachers recommend this system of creating world-mindedness. In addition to learning first-hand information from

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all corners of the earth, students take a renewed interest in the civic life of their own country in an effort to describe it in an interesting manner to their new friends.

More than 5,000,000 letters have been exchanged by boys and girls between ten and twenty-eight years of age. In almost all cases, the correspondence is carried on in English.

There is a small charge for a list of foreign names and addresses and those sending a self-addressed, stamped envelope to the League headquarters, 41 Mt. Vernon Street, Boston, Mass., will receive complete information.

REVIEWS

IN THE ABYSM OF TIME

By H. L. Silverman, with a Foreword by Dr. Elias Lieberman. Century, 1938.

In Abysm of Time is the calm meditative verse of the philosopher rather than the singer. As Dr. Lieberman remarks in his Foreword: "Mr. Silverman is naturally reflective rather than lyrical, an interpreter rather than a singer." Thus it is natural to find Mr. Silverman writing a poem entitled *The Philosopher* dedicated to Prof. Morris R. Cohen, or another called *Reflection in Poetry.*

In his critique on poetry, the author states: "Our poetry should somehow associate itself, for mutual sympathy and interpretation, with the diverse streams of social and philosophical thought." Judging the author's poetry by these standards, we find that he does not abide closely by his own dicta. He is more concerned with metaphysical probings of his soul than the conflict and distress raging around him.

We do not feel that Mr. Silverman is entirely consistent when he states: "A large naturalism, with vigor, with certain idealistic generalizations, with a gentle radicalism, a calm and cultured honesty —with these, poets today ought to concern themselves." This sort of philosophic confusion can only lead to a paradoxical outlook on life. It may account for the poet's hovering between the real and the ideal and never quite making up his mind.

We feel that Mr. Silverman is on the right track when he declares: "There should be an increasing concern with the Present." A closer observation of the present world about him, should endow his poetry with more virility and universality.

SARAH THORWALD STIEGLITZ.
Thomas Jefferson High School.

THE NATURE OF PROOF

By Dr. Fawcett. The 13th Yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1938.

When scholars of the future look back to the early part of the 20th century to study the changes and the causes of the changes in the content and methods of teaching mathematics, the work of Dr. Fawcett will be found to have had far reaching effect.

No one, in my opinion, has so emphasized the fact that the theorems of geometry are not important per se, but important only in so far as they serve as the modus operandi by which patterns of thinking and reasoning are inculcated.

In this study, Dr. Fawcett describes classroom procedures by which geometric proof may be used as a means of cultivating critical and reflective thought.

One of the fundamental procedures in the structure of any mathematical study is to make definitions and assumptions and to investigate their implications. To introduce pupils to the importance of definition, Dr. Fawcett used some very interesting non-mathematical situations. From this point on, "discovery" is the key word of the procedure. Certain properties of a figure are assumed and the pupil is encouraged to discover the implications of these assumed properties.

Conclusions thus obtained were then tested by logical proof. However, the major emphasis is not on the theorems but rather on the "method of proof." The method is then generalized and applied to non-mathematical situations.

The implications of the final evaluation of his own work is what will mark Dr. Fawcett as one of the pioneers in the new teaching of mathematics. Every teacher should read them for, I believe, in the very near future, these ideas will take root and finally be brought to successful fruition.

HENRY H. SHANHOLT.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

EDUCATION AND SOCIAL TRENDS

By R. Schorling and H. Y. McClusky. World Book Compnay.

This volume is a study of the relationship between social trends and educational change. The authors point clearly to the ways in which social movements are impinging upon the school. They note the following tendencies as influencing in some ways the direction and growth of our educational institutions:

1. Concentration of economic control without the acceptance of the social responsibility which should be an integral part of the assumption of such control.
2. Weakening of religious and parental controls.
3. The increasing complexity

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and strain of living in the contemporary world.

4. The struggle for some sort of international coöperation.

5. Shift of population both local and national.

6. The influence of the machine on the types and numbers of occupations.

7. Growing conviction on the part of the masses of the desirability of education.

8. Discovery, by pressure groups that the school is a handy instrument for controlling and directing the ideas of children.

What are the implications for education in these social forces? The authors are not too detailed on this point but the suggestions they make, some of them already functioning in the schools, are immensely valuable. The increasingly competitive unscrupulousness of modern business demands more courses in consumer education designed to protect the consumer against those who would exploit him for personal advantage. The disintegrating effect of modern civilization upon the life of the child points to the need for in some way integrating the child when his home and community life fail to do so. Creative use of leisure, vocational guidance, adult education on a wider and more intelligently planned scale, propaganda-resistant education—these are some of the antidotes suggested to cure or, at least, ameliorate the very real and very ominous tendencies which a planless economy has let loose upon us.

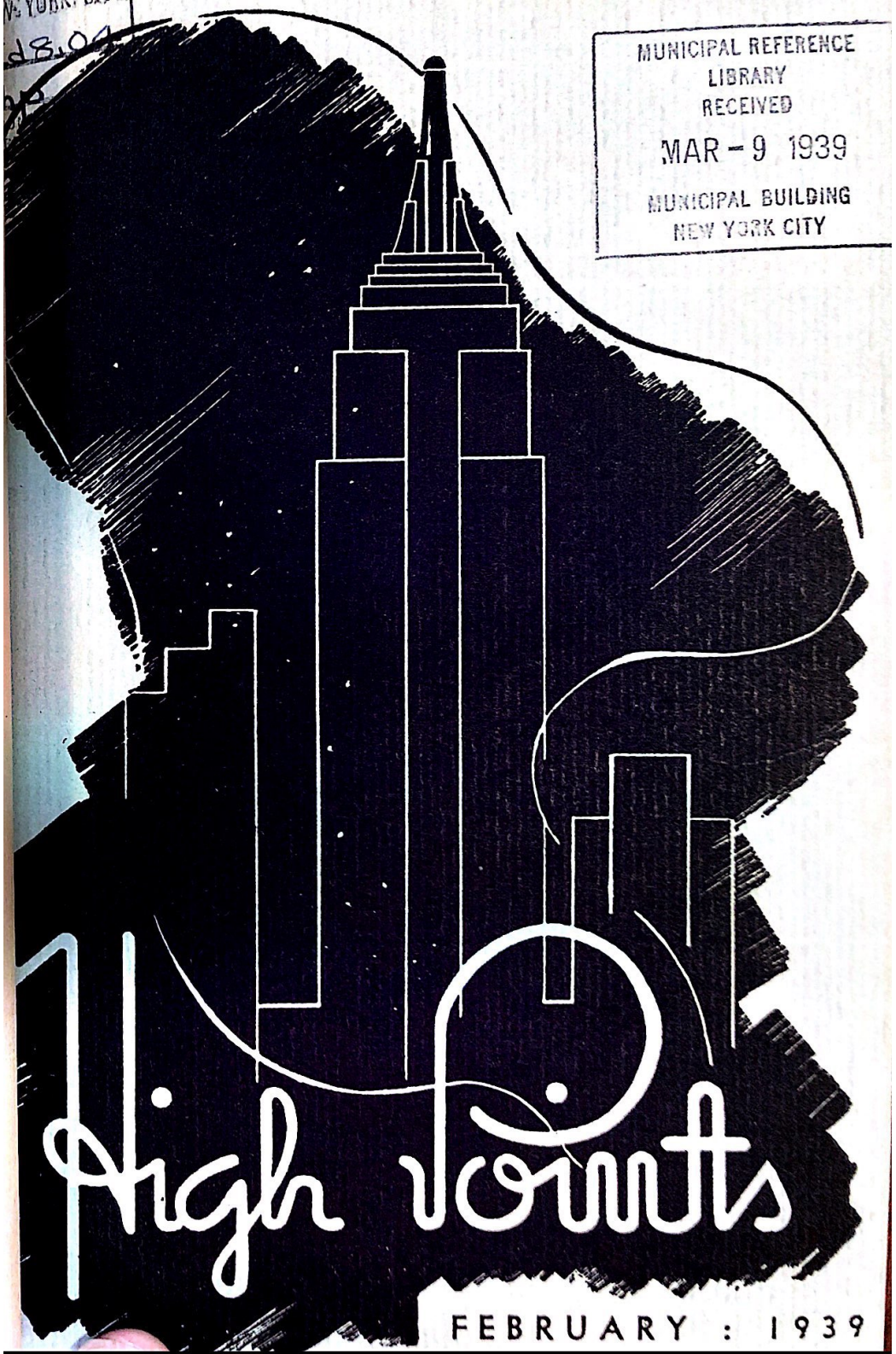
There is no promise held forth that if the school adopts all these plans it will stave off disaster. Society, too, has a substantial stake in this task of harnessing these blind forces in the interests of the common good. But the school can and must do some of these things if it is to discharge its own duty towards society and if it is to justify its own existence as a critical and intelligent preparation for living the good life. The schools need not, as some of our forward-looking colleagues suggest, become the spearhead of revolt against the present order, nor need they serve the interests of any special class. But certainly they can meet the challenges which the larger society has raised and bring the child into closer and more realistic rapport with life as he will have to face it in a short while.

The authors have done a splendidly simple and effective piece of work here. We sometimes (all of us) tend to lose sight of the forest for the trees. A book like this brings us back simply and forcefully to the real nature of the role we have to play and to the magnitude of the issues in which we and our pupils are intimately and irrevocably, if sometimes obscurely involved.

A. H. Lass.

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Homework in the New York City Elementary Schools by Peter J. Di Napoli .

The contents of HIGH POINTS are indexed in THE EDUCATION INDEX, which is on file in Libraries.

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THE TREATMENT OF MILITARY HISTORY IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SYLLABUS AND TEXT-BOOKS

With the rule of might and militarism being substituted once more for reason and peace, it is pertinent to inquire to what extent our school curriculum and text-books, particularly in connection with the study of history, are fostering the militaristic temper. A sub-committee of the Committee on History Text-books[1] has therefore undertaken an investigation of the attitude of the elementary school history syllabus and of a typical set of history text-books[2] to the question of war and peace.

It might be inquired why a high school body of teachers undertook a study of the elementary school syllabus and texts. The teacher of the social sciences in the high schools has a right, indeed a duty, to know what is being done in the lower grades. Before he can intelligently proceed to realize the objectives set for the high schools, he must be acquainted with the aims set for the elementary schools. He must know whether the elementary schools are, on the whole, giving a true or distorted picture of the past and of the present. He must be aware of the kind of emphasis that has been placed on the teaching of the social studies in the grades below. As Profesor Ernest Horn has stated, "The teacher of the Social Studies in any grade has a right to know the nature of the efforts to educate children in the preceding grades.[3] The report follows herewith.

THE SYLLABUS

For the most part, this committee does not find any undue emphasis on the military aspects of history. In fact, there is evident a salutary attempt to foster a spirit of tolerance, peacefulness, and neighborliness throughout the syllabus. In presenting the aims of teaching history the syllabus states as "Aim 4 . . . .

The ethical aspects of the movement for world peace and

[1] Appointed by the Executive Committee of the Association of Teachers of History in the City of New York.

[2] Reynolds and Taylor, *Required History*, 4A to 8B, N. Y. Noble & Noble.

[3] *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies*, 1937, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, Part XV.

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the reduction of armaments are most significant. The tremendous impetus given this movement by the World War is perhaps the most important aspect of contemporary history that can be presented to school children."

The syllabus carries out this aim with a fair degree of success. Social history is given some attention. Military history is very much in evidence, to be sure. However, to underemphasize it or omit it would be just as serious a distortion as to overplay it. It may be added, parenthetically, that military history does not, per se, promote a militaristic frame of mind in our students. On the contrary, war history may provide an excellent opportunity for the teacher to bring out the sheer wastefulness, horror, and futility of most wars. *The development of a bellicose frame of mind and the glorification of war depend upon the teacher and the teaching process as well as upon the curriculum.* We submit, however, that a course of study that is overburdened with the story of wars tends to create a distorted picture of the march of history. The child, subjected to such a view of the past, begins to feel that war is the normal condition of affairs and becomes, in consequence, fair bait for warmongering propagandists. As Ernest Horn has put it, "History giving great space to the undeniable heroism of soldiers and sailors in war is *prima facie* militaristic. It indoctrinates by selection and emphasis."[1]

It is therefore important that a history course of study be well balanced. A good course of study should emphasize the peaceful accomplishments of man rather than his predatory ones. The following is an outline of the syllabus as it relates to military or non-military phases of history.

4A—There is very little military history to be found in this grade. Its purpose is to give the pupil a picture of early New York in the time of the Dutch settlement. The emphasis is definitely social rather than military.

4B—Discoverers and Explorers: the Norseman, Marco Polo, Columbus, Vespucius, Magellan, Captain Cook, Livingstone and Stanley, Peary, Amundsen.

5—Explorers in American history: Ponce de Leon, Cortez, De Soto, etc. Also, the period of colonization. The story of Roger Williams stresses tolerance; the topic on the Quakers affords an opportunity to stress a love of peace.

5B—The work of this grade is in need of revision. Its emphasis is disproportionately on military history. It concerns itself with the period in American history from the beginning of the French and Indian War through the making of the Constitution. There is not enough social history here. Out of 45 periods devoted in this grade to the study of history, 28 deal with war—French and Indian War (9 periods), Revolutionary War (19 periods).

6A—American history from the beginning of Washington's administration through the Civil War. The work of this grade is well balanced. The War of 1812 is given only 4 periods while 6 periods are devoted to Jefferson, the Louisiana Purchase, and the Lewis and Clark expedition.

6B—American history from the close of the Civil War to the present.

Grade aims 6 and 8 are significant: "To have the pupils appreciate the magnitude of the World War by emphasizing the large number of combatants, and the enormous loss of life and property caused by the use of modern implements of warfare. To picture the World War and its effects in such a way that the pupils will feel the desire to see justice substituted for force in international relations."

There is no need to go into any further grade-by-grade analysis of the syllabus. From what has already been presented, it can be seen that our New York City syllabus does not disproportionately harp on military history.

The following quantitative study of the syllabus bears out our contention that while there is room for improvement in the matter of a greater emphasis on man's peacetime achievements, the syllabus does not over-stress military affairs.

TABLE I

QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS OF HISTORY SYLLABUS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY

		War	*Non-War*	*Peace*
Required Dates	(24)	7 (29%)	16 (66%)	1 (5%)
Number of lessons to be devoted	90	(25%)	241 (71%)	9 (4%)

With a view toward improving the syllabus, we submit the following recommendations:

1. A fuller treatment of how the United States has avoided war by arbitration.
2. A more realistic treatment of the causes of war, particularly the economic motives of minority groups of landowners, merchants, bankers, manufacturers, and so forth.
3. A more thorough explanation of the influence of propaganda in creating wars. Provision should be made, even at the

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 93.

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elementary school level, for the more critical reading of newspapers.

4. Less details of military history to be included, with greater emphasis on the essential futility of most wars.
5. A fuller treatment of the peace movement.
6. More social history. A greater emphasis on the normal pursuits of man in time of peace.

The following are some concrete suggestions for the improvement of the syllabus along the lines laid down herein.[1]

"Grade 3B—A study of Indian life with emphasis on social relationships . . . To present the social relationships of a primitive community in such a way as to enable the pupils to understand better the complex relationships of the community in which they live."

One of the most serious social problems is the achievement of peace. The failure of the red man to achieve a condition of permanent harmony and peace between different tribes, the constant inter-tribal warfare, and its influence on Indian history should be noted. We think the attempt to study the social aspects of Indian life is a very desirable activity.

"Grade 5A—2. To have the pupils appreciate the difficulties of climate, topography, distance, and *Indian hostility* (Italics ours) that the explorers had to overcome."

The problems of peace are closely related to racial toleration. Is it not also desirable, in connection with a study of Indian hostility, to note the reasons for this hostility lest the children develop a distorted picture of the Indian? The feeling of racial snobbishness, instilled in children toward the Indian, is later easily transferred toward other races.

"5A—Aims in Teaching History . . . 4. What is the *ethical* aspect of the topic? 6. To present the accounts of the explorations in such a way as to stimulate the pupils' interest in the romance of exploration, to satisfy their desire for stories of high adventure, and to cultivate the appreciation of heroic leadership . . . Cortez, De Soto, Pizarro."

These men robbed, enslaved, and murdered the American native. Exploitation should be considered from the ethical as well as from the romantic angle.

"6A—War of 1812. A. Long-standing difficulties . . ." The list of causes omits our desire for Canada. "B. Events of the war . . . burning of Washington."

To teach that the English burned Washington without stating the provocation, our burning of the Canadian parliament buildings in York (Toronto), inculcates unnecessary prejudice toward England and distorts history.

"D. Results of the war."—Children should be taught that the war was a stalemate in a naval and military sense and a failure in that we did not achieve our objectives, a recognition of the principle of the freedom of the seas and the annexation of Canada.

"6B—XI. The World War . . ." Nothing is said about the economic factors involved.

"XII. Present movements for world peace . . . (about 3 periods)." Much more than three periods should be devoted to this vital topic. The League of Nations is not even mentioned in the syllabus at this point. Special lessons should be devoted to the teaching of the evils of war.

"7B—III. Conditions that led to the Revolution." Economic factors, such as influence of land companies and British interference with colonial currency, are unmentioned.

V. "Slavery and disunion." The economic basis of the Civil War is referred to only inferentially. Questions like tariffs or influence of western lands are omittted altogether.

"8B—VII. The World War—4. To give an understanding of the events that *forced* the United States into the war". Does not the word, *forced*, imply that we had no alternative but had to enter the War? Are historians agreed upon this interpretation?

The Text-Books

The committee made a study of the most widely used[1] set of text-books in the elementary schools of New York City, *Required History* by Reynolds and Taylor. It is our conclusion that the text-book shows a greater disposition to emphasize military history than the syllabus. Our findings are summarized in the following table.

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[1] The words in quotation marks are from the syllabus. Those not in quotation marks are the suggestions for improvement.

[1] According to the 1937 requisitions to the Bureau of Supplies of the Board of Education.

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TABLE II

REFERENCES TO WAR AND PEACE IN REYNOLDS AND TAYLOR REQUIRED HISTORY—4A - 8B

Method of Reference	*Items on War*	*Non-war*	*Peace, Conciliation, or bad results of war*
Name of people	239 (41%)	334 (58%)	9 (1%)
Pictures and maps	209 (25%)	575 (70%)	24 (3%)
Quotations	129 (45%)	146 (50%)	14 (5%)
Average of above items	34%	62.5%	3.5%
Paragraph headings	499 (25%)	1,408 (72%)	43 (3%)
End of Chapter materials			
A. *Game of famous sayings (7B and 8A)*	19 (68%)	9 (32%)	
B. *Matching games* (8B)	17 (37%)	29 (63%)	
C. *Diagnostic test and remedial treatment*	126 (28%)	307 (69%)	9 (2%)
D. *Review of historical terms*	90 (23%)	299 (75%)	10 (2%)
Average of end of chapter materials	39%	59.75%	1.25%
Grand Average of above	32.7%	64.7%	2.6%

The following table indicates that the fault lies, not in the desire of the text-book writers to ignore the plan of the syllabus, but rather in the execution of the details.

TABLE III

QUANTITATIVE COMPARISON OF N.Y.C. SYLLABUS IN HISTORY AND REYNOLDS AND TAYLOR: REQUIRED HISTORY 4A to 8B

Syllabus (5A to 8B) Number of lessons		*Text-book (5A to 8B) Number of Paragraph headings*
War	25%	25%
Non-war	71%	72%
Peace	4%	2%

Thus it will be seen from a comparison of paragraph headings in the text-book with topic headings in the syllabus that the text-book writers while following the plan of the syllabus fill in too many trivial military details, such as names of unimportant battles and generals, and neglect the more significant questions of underlying causes and results. Hardly ever, except occasionally in connection with the World War, is there a mention of the horrible futility, or the costs in lives and men, of the various wars our country fought. In their attempt to invest the story of a particular war with an aura of reality the text-book writers are indeed often guilty of a distortion. For the net result is to glorify and romanticize what is really frequently ignoble and drab.

The following are the recommendations made by this committee on the basis of its study of the above mentioned text-books. It will be noted that many of these suggestions over-lap those made for the improvement of the syllabus. However, in the interest of clarity, it was thought wiser to deal with them separately.

1. *Causes of wars*—Do not omit or under-emphasize the economic causes. The argument that elemetary school children cannot understand the economic factors is untenable. It is quite possible to deal with economic matters in simple terms. If we do not make the attempt, we are helping to foster fictional literature with historical backgrounds, certainly not history. Horn effectively states the case when he remarks that "There is an unfortunate tendency to be more lax in their requirements of historical accuracy when the books are intended for immature students. This is quite without justification; not only are first impressions lasting, but younger children have neither the knowledge nor the training in critical methods to protect themselves from any distortion."[1]

2. *Effects of wars*—Point out the awful cost in money, lives, culture, and so forth of most wars. With the exception of the treatment of the World War, very little attempt is made to do this vital job.

3. *Description of wars*—Do not glorify wars. Battles are often painted as conflicts between heroes and villains. Such wars, as the War of 1812, the Mexican War, and the Spanish-American War, are all presented as justifiable attempts to right irremediable wrongs. Findings of recent scholarship on the other side are rarely, if ever, included in the text.

4. *Treatment of the Peace Movement* — Considerably more space must be devoted to this topic. Inadequate attention has been devoted to the attempts of societies, individuals, and nations to inculcate the proper ideals of peace.

5. *Social History*—Devote more attention to social history. There is not enough material on how our people lived, their homes, their food, their clothes, their amusements, education, and religion.

ABRAHAM GEDULDIG.
Haaren High School.

ABRAHAM MARGOLIES.
Evander Childs High School.

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 289.

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CERTAIN PROBLEMS OF TEXTBOOK WRITERS*

When John M'Culloch in 1787 wrote what appears to have been the first textbook in American history for school use, he undoubtedly was confronted with certain problems. But, so far as we know, he was not greatly troubled. True he was a pioneer, but since his book of slightly over 200 pages was little more than a series of disconnected papers, without illustrations (except for a folded map) and without educational equipment, we may assume that organization was not for him a major problem. And since he appears to have lifted more than 100 pages from a reader compiled by Noah Webster —even printing those pages apparently from the same type used in printing Webster's book, we may guess that there were also other matters that did not trouble M'Culloch.

As you can well imagine and as some of your members know from experience, numerous problems present themselves to the textbook writer of today. It is my understanding, however, that it is not the purpose of this meeting to discuss such major problems as the selection of content, the organization of content, the space allotment of content, the accuracy of content, or the technical issues of the place and function of educational equipment, except as these problems seem to be related to possible pressures brought upon the writer to influence the nature of his work.

Although I am aware that the record shows rather plainly in specific instances that pressures have been exerted with success in the past, I can offer no direct evidence from my own experience that pressures have been successfully exerted either upon me as a textbook writer or upon the publisher. To speak frankly, however, I believe that all textbook writers are conscious of the existence of pressure groups when they write; and therein lies, in my judgment, the real danger to reasonable freedom in textbook writing. For the timid, this is very serious; for the less timid, it is, of course, not so serious. But to conclude that this interference, real or imagined, comes from lay sources only would be erroneous. Forward-looking textbook writers have teachers to contend with—and rightly. It must be quite obvious that a textbook writer cannot freely go too far ahead of what the composite teacher of history seems to want. In a sense a circle —not necessarily vicious—exists; and it is difficult to extend the circumference of that circle, although it can and must be enlarged. When, moreover, one bears in mind that the selection of content is a highly subjective matter, he can readily understand why the weight of past practice probably lies too heavily on the hand that writes.

Even though the textbook writer may possess a pretty clear-cut philosophy of the "new history," he departs slowly from the accepted way of his predecessors in the selection of content. Here, as in the important matter of organization, he frequently lacks the courage to go the full length of his convictions. On the other hand, the situation is not hopeless, for progress has been made. War in American history — certainly the details of war—has been relegated, and more space has been devoted not only to the peace movement but to the ways men live by in a world that periodically rests from armed conflict. Gradually, the slavery controversy and the resulting Civil War are receiving less emphasis, as are the colonial period and the age of discovery and exploration. Over against these and other changes, one finds some textbook writers introducing a social and cultural content virtually lacking two decades ago, not to mention a sharp upswing in the amount and kind of economic history finding its way into some of our textbooks. The relative importance of the old as against the new rests upon the judgment of the writer, and what is equally important the extent to which a theme is developed is left to that same judgment. According to a study made by Dr. Michael Levine, some textbook writers in American history have on a comparative basis performed well, while others have performed less satisfactorily, if their work is measured in terms of space given to some major problems of contemporary American life.[1] That the emphasis is shifting in American history texts is beyond dispute, but the ways in which it shifts vary greatly from book to book. Some writers are conservative; others find it convenient not to change; and those who want to introduce new emphases because they believe the times call for them are, as has been intimated, uncertain of the reception they will receive from teachers.

And if one gets by the teacher, he still has the pupil to consider in the selection of content, as one example will illustrate. In April of this year, a letter was received from a high-school pupil in one of our large eastern cities inquiring why we had not given more than "a few isolated references to the aborigines" in our textbook. I answered the inquiry with meticulous care, pointing out that

* Paper read before the Association of Teachers of History in New York City on December 17, 1938.

[1] Michael Levine, "Social Problems in American History Textbooks," *Proceedings* of the Middle States Association of History Teachers (1935), 61-70.

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there were at least 20 references to the Indians, including one illustration and several full-length references both in certain reading exercises and in the "Minimum Library" suggested in the appendix. I explained that under the cycle system, the Indian was a favorite theme from kindergarten through grade V and again in the junior high school in many school systems. I also suggested that under the circumstances there were unquestionably other pressing themes that might more justifiably be emphasized at the senior-high-school level. In addition, I prepared a generalization for this pupil based upon a comparison of the space devoted to the Indian in what were then the eleven most recent American history textbooks, which indicated clearly that the Indian was making another "last stand." In conclusion, I promised the correspondent that we would no longer discriminate against the Indian by excluding him from the index.

Leaving for the moment both the teacher and the pupil, attention is directed to two annoying issues: the conflicting sectional interests of a country of our size and the so-called controversial issues. That these issues have loomed large in the past may be attributed in part to the sectional nature of our country, in part to the heterogeneous character of our population, in part to the conservative outlook of our controlling economic overlords, and in part to our traditional policy of nationalism. Lest we forget these heritages, special interest groups—economic, social and political—are organized to preserve the status quo. No textbook writer can be wholly unmindful of these traditional forces that have shaped the American way of life and thought. If he will not sell his soul to these interests as some apparently have done,[1] he frequently seeks refuge under the cloak of vague and harmless generalities, or completely omits all reference to the dynamite-laden issues, or resorts to the "on the one hand and on the other hand" approach of a late but not especially lamented magazine. Dark as the past has been as reflected in restrictive state legislation (which in some instances if literally enforced would remove from our classrooms the textbook of every reputable historian) and also as reflected in the witch-hunting activities of the Hirshfield Committee in New York City fifteen years ago and in the Chicago "hearings" under Mayor Thompson ten years ago[1]—dark as this past has been, I believe that we have come upon more liberal times, if only temporarily. Something significant has happened to America since the Great Depression: the old tin gods do not shine with the same luster. Whether it is lack of money, whether it is the felt necessity of concentrating fire on the reformers at Washington, or whether liberalism under the constant barrages of the New Deal has perceptibly widened the outlook of the man in the street, the professional patriotic societies and the various vested interests have for the moment at least turned their attention to what appear to them to be more important matters. I believe that the slight liberalization of the American mind which appears to be a by-product of the New Deal has been reflected in recent textbooks. It is now possible, for example, to publish books with red covers without evoking too many protests and too many bans.

But strangely enough, the liberal historian has yet another force to reckon with—a difficult one because of its surreptitious nature. But let Howard K. Beale briefly tell of this sordid phase of the publishing business. "Recently," wrote Dr. Beale in 1936, "the agent of a large and reputable house was caught red-handed spreading personal libel about the author of a rival firm's history text who is one of the greatest of our historians. There was evidence that he was acting under instructions from the regional office of the firm."[2] Despite illiberal forces always at work, I believe there is evidence that American schools and those directly responsible for them are slowly coming to a realization that sooner or later they must face the realities of a sorely tried country. When the president of the Idaho Society of the S. A. R. states, as he is quoted as saying in 1923, that "discussion of controversial subjects has no place in a history; it should not be found in a single school in the United States," he is talking through his hat to put the case mildly.[3] The days of laissez-faire are fast passing. Smiling administrators do not appear to smile quite so broadly. They, or rather some of them, have been reading some of the reports of

[1] See for this and other phases of this problem "Public Utilities' Propaganda in the Schools," *Editorial Research Reports* (Washington, June 28, 1928), 553-70; "A Study of Patriotic Propaganda," *Information Service*, VII, No. 18 (New York, May 5, 1928), 1-11; Howard K. Beale, *Are American Teachers Free?* (New York, 1936), XI; Bessie L. Pierce, *Civic Attitudes in American School Textbooks* (Chicago, 1930), I-XVI; Pierce, *Public Opinion and the Teaching of History* (New York, 1926), VI and VII; Pierce, *Citizens' Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth* (New York, 1933); P. A. Knowlton, "Politicians, Teachers and Schoolbooks," *Scribner's* XCV (June, 1934), 421-24; H. U. Faulkner, "Perverted American History," *Harper's*, vol. 152 (February, 1926), 337-46; Arthur Walworth, *School Histories at War* (Cambridge, 1938), the latest but rather ineffectual "study of the treatment of our wars in the secondary school history books of the United States and in those of its former enemies." (See the review of this monograph by Harrison C. Thomas in *Social Education*, II (September, 1938), 435-36.)

[1] David Hirshfield, *Report on Investigation of Pro-British History Text-Books in Use in the Public Schools of the City of New York* (New York, 1923); William H. Thompson, "Shall We Shatter the Nation's Idols in School Histories?" *Current History*, XXVII (February, 1928), 619-25.

[2] Beale, *op. cit.*, 277.

[3] Quoted by Faulkner, *op. cit.*, 343.

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the American Historical Association's Commission on the Social Studies or the monographs of the National Education Association's Educational Policies Commission. Gradually school administrators are beginning to sense that an ostrich-like social education is getting us exactly nowhere and actually is doing harm. They are beginning to say: "Perhaps, after all, social realities must be faced in the classroom; and if we are to do this, we must have tools fashioned for the new job." Is this too optimistic a view to take?

The little objective data at hand would seem to indicate that both teachers and textbook writers should take heart. "Liberal" teaching is apparently favored today, according to the very recent report of a survey of lay opinion in Pennsylvania conducted by Drs. Mort and Cornell of Teachers College and Hinton of Dartmouth College.[1] Based upon a questionnaire technique, the results show that parents are 64 per cent "liberal" in respect to "What Should Our Schools Do?" as against a reported 76 per cent for teachers and 79 per cent for school administrators. It appears, for example, that a majority of each group believes that schools should be free to ascertain the facts and to discuss the facts involved in controversial issues, that social-studies teachers should emphasize certain contemporary problems more and traditional subjects less. It is interesting to note also that, although most parents did not believe that the danger of communism in this country was great enough to warrant the blotting out of a study of Russia, they did feel that so-called radical lecturers ought not to be permitted to air their views on high-school assembly programs.

Akin to the issue of sectionalism in the writing of American history textbooks is that close cousin, provincialism. Obviously, a textbook writer should be as far above a provincial outlook as it is humanly possible to be. He will, however, be reminded from time to time, either by schoolmen or by chambers of commerce, that he has not given this or that city its place in the sun or that he has written in too complimentary a fashion (even though accurate historically) about a rival community. A textbook writer in the field of American history is concerned with a given community only to the extent that a given community has contributed significantly to the development of the story of America. He is not writing local history, nor is he concerned with petty rivalries of the present; and, with the full backing of liberal publishers, he must resist these local pressures. Before leaving this consideration of the effect of conflicting sectional interests and the existence of controversial issues, may I say that no textbook writer should consciously be guilty of injecting propaganda into his writings.

Reference should be made to one other correlative problem. A textbook, it goes without saying, should be as accurate as it is possible to make it. But accuracy is relative. What may have been reasonably accurate in 1920 in a textbook account of a given theme may not be accepted scholarship today. And, of course, at no time is the admonition to "tell the truth optimistically" acceptable by scholarly standards. To keep abreast of current scholarship is extremely difficult, and yet the textbook writer ought to do it. Generally speaking, however, he falls far short of the ideal. He tends to live too much and too long by the old knowledge. There is some evidence on this point. Miss Blythe, who published her study six years ago, examined 53 secondary American history texts published in the 33-year period from 1897 to 1930, to ascertain to what extent the writers incorporated into their texts 32 new findings, emphases and viewpoints made available through research in the 35-year span from 1893 to 1928. "Modern textbook writers," to quote one of the study's conclusions, "are either very conservative or very indifferent toward the new views, emphases, and discoveries presented by historical scholars."[1] Only scholarly examination of textbooks before adoption and insistence that the product be reasonably up-to-date in terms of scholarship will materially improve this situation.

To risk an evaluation, may I give it as my conviction that, despite the existence of groups whose purpose it is to have history perverted to their programs, we have today in this country history textbooks which by and large surpass their predecessors in the extent to which they have freed themselves from the blighting influences of a narrow nationalism, the equally withering effects of either sectionalism or provincialism, and the complacency that accompanies the glorification of the status quo. This, I hasten to add, is not to say that we have approached the ideal. Far from that. But given courageous writers and equally courageous publishers intent upon producing the best possible social-studies books for the purpose of educating our youth for the world as it actually is, we can make further advances in the direction of the ideal. But we will not progress if writers and publishers run to cover every time some self-appointed lay group—always a minority but a group almost always professing to speak in the name of the American people—

[1] See news item, "Parents Favor 'Liberal' Teaching," in New York *Times*, December 4, 1938. The full report of this study has not, at this writing, been published.

[1] Irene T. Blythe, "The Textbooks and the New Discoveries, Emphases, and Viewpoints in American History," *Historical Outlook*, XXIII (December, 1932), 395-402.

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makes an effort to drive a textbook writer out of town. If the book is historically accurate, if the content is properly graded and educationally significant, why should we not stand by our professional guns?

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Brookline, Massachusetts.

COOPERATIVE EDUCATION IN NEW YORK CITY HIGH SCHOOLS

Coöperative work has been carried on in the high schools of New York City long enough and widely enough to learn of its possibilities. Over twenty years ago, the Board of Education recognized the fact that neither the schools alone nor industry alone could discharge the vocational education responsibility of the city. Education accompanying gainful employment was instituted at that time. This plan has passed through various phases and, despite the worst years the business of this country has ever experienced, it emerges a coöperative system of training that is compatible with the up-to-the-minute demands and trends of business.

There are several problems in the organization and administration of any plan in New York City owing to its size and the numbers concerned. The coöperative plan as operating on a large scale today has done so identically and practically under the same personnel since 1924. Hence it is possible to make deductions which are the result of careful watching and evaluation over the period. Three high schools, Julia Richman, Newtown, and Straubenmuller Textile, offer an adapted, four year Commercial Course on the coöperative basis. The first two years the students are in classes full time (called non-alternating), for the last two years they work and attend school on alternate weeks, (called alternating).

The numbers are distributed as follows (as of October 10, 1938.)

	Non-Alternating	*Alternating*	*Total*
Julia Richman	79	847	926
Newtown	279	228	507
Textile	164	282	446
	522	1,357	1,879

The school training, supervision of teachers, programming of classes, and general school organization are the responsibility of the individual Principal for his coöperative group. The contacting for jobs, selection of applicants, sending out to employers, follow-up, and any adjustment between student-workers and their employers are the responsibility of the Director of Guidance and Placement for the New York City Schools, who has assigned the writer as Assistant for this coöperative supervision. This division of supervision has been found, in the large New York City schools, more satisfactory, as in this way the training is decentralized, and the placements are centralized. As there are variations in the specific aims of the courses, in subject matter and in student personnel, this decentralization of school training was found to be more satisfactory. Newtown and Textile have boys as well as girls, and Julia Richman has girls only. Hence procedures and school problems differ. Also, the Textile High School requires all students there to have one year of Textiles. Thus in this way the principal of each school knows and supervises the coöperative group as all other groups in his school. The need for centralization of placement was recognized as it seems desirable to business men that there be one office where they can contact for everything pertaining to the coöperative workers, lay-offs, change of week or hours, where inquiry could be made about special training or special ability, health or other records. Working Papers are issued at this same office for all these coöperative workers thus eliminating much loss of time, necessarily resulting from such requirements.

The two phases of this plan working in close coöperation bring about a most desirable training and invaluable practical experience. It is however, absolutely necessary that the school and the coöperative placement office understand and recognize each other's problems for this success, and that these two, in turn, recognize industry's problems.

This coöperation and understanding does prevail in New York City between the school system and the firms employing the coöperative pupils. The coöperative placement office, by its close and constant contact with business methods and changing business demands, can relay to the schools material for subject matter needed to be taught as well as information on the requirements of business along the line of personality training, appearance, manners, dependability, reliability and general personal qualities. These three high schools have been making significant changes in the form of service rendered. They endeavor to fit the student to cope more easily with our social and economic environment. To this end, the commercial course is adapted dif-

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ferently at each of these schools. Basically their subject matter is the same. Regular required high school subjects are taught, and two main groups of electives offered, the secretarial and merchandising. Secretarial electives include bookkeeping, typing, filing, machine calculation (comptometer, adding, billing, machine work) dictaphone operation and some stenography. Merchandise electives include all phases of retailing and salesmanship.

There has been better understanding each year on the part of those in the schools supervising coöperative education of the need for industrial and business conferences and of the growing necessity for more practical courses of study. Competition is keener today than ever before in the history of business in our country. Industry can absorb only a certain number of young people and these must be well grounded in the fundamentals. It was brought forcibly to our attention by repeated rejections of coöperative pupils because of "poor arithmetic" on pre-employment tests that the fundamentals of simple arithmetic had to be retaught if these pupils were to be hired. Accordingly, efforts were directed toward this end, and for the past three years, untiring drill in arithmetic has been given all coöperative pupils, with a perceptible increase in the number accepted on first pre-employment tests.

In New York City, there has been a tendency on the part of employers to hire only promotional employees. Heretofore, a person was hired for a specific job, cashiering, or stock, with the ordinary chance of a promotion. Now the employer hires for the future, and in so doing, he hires for the most elemental work with an eye to where in his organization the applicant will fit five years hence. This is desirable from the person's point of view who can meet these high specifications, but it raises the standards young people must meet for all jobs. In New York City, pre-employment tests are almost universal and are stricter than ever. The personal interview is more exacting and so the placing of junior workers becomes more and more difficult.

It seems wise to us in coöperative work in New York City to give a general broad practical education with specific training in business skills but to have the training and placement in business sufficiently elastic to allow an adaptable person to be shifted as openings occur.

No record of the coöperative work in New York City would be complete without a reference to the success of its coöperative graduates. There were two hundred and fifty five (255) graduated in June 1938. One hundred and thirty nine (139) were employed at graduation. This means that the balance, one hundred and sixteen (116), had worked intermittently throughout the year, but that at graduation one hundred and thirty nine (139) were regularly employed. Follow-up in October 1938 showed one hundred and sixty (160) employed in full time work. With very few exceptions, those employed at graduation were transferred to full time work in the firms where they had worked as alternate week coöperatives. The others had been placed by the coöperative office as calls for full time positions came.

There can only be sentiments of satisfaction and optimism that cooperative work has gone forward in spite of economic conditions. During the past five years 1933-1938, $483,042 has been earned by the coöperative student-workers of Julia Richman, Newtown, and Textile High Schools. When one considers that almost a half million dollars has been earned by these young people in regular business and that they competed for these jobs in open market and were subject to all rules, regulations and ratings of other workers, it is our feeling that the cooperative training in the New York City schools does prepare a large percent of the students to fit into the highly competitive business of the day.

We hope to continue to hold our school standards up to those exacted by modern business, to continue to stress the need for accuracy and speed in industry, to drill and campaign for better written and spoken English, and to increase our efforts for personality and character development.

In my early remarks, I referred to the fact that these adapted commercial courses were centered in the three high schools repeatedly referred to. There are also in New York City two other successfully operating smaller groups, one at the Washington Irving High High School and one in the Haaren High School. The former group is organized on the basis of reward for achievement. No student with a record of failure is permitted to enter coöperative classes. The average time spent in coöperative work approximates four weeks of outside occupation and such service conforms in all ways to existing employment requirements. The group at Haaren is in a technical phase, the aviation industry. This is unique work and one for which the future will hold great possibilities. Apprentice training in this line may become the soundest way of absorbing young workers into the industry.

Thus, in the writer's opinion, we are engaged in a combination set-up of education and business that contributes much to these young people in training and development in adaptability, reliability, coöperation and loyalty.

GRACE BRENNAN.
Assistant to Director
Supervising Coöperative Placement.

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RECORDINGS AND THE ENGLISH CLASSROOM

The purpose of this article and others to follow is to indicate to teachers of English and other subjects the vastly interesting and fruitful possibilities that lie in present day recordings of music and the spoken word. It is our feeling that in this as-yet-virgin territory there are implications for our teaching as richly significant as any that have come out of the very exciting activity of this past decade.

The part that the classroom must play in relation to the radio and movie has already been compellingly and inevitably defined for us. Life has forced itself into the classroom, and we have had to come to grips with it. Recognizing that our students will, whether we like it or not, become movie habitués and radio addicts, we have tried and are trying to train them to do better those things which they are going to do. How successful a job we have done is still far from certain. Reports from various quarters are not heartening. Sporadic progress is being made in elevating tastes and habits, but no startling results have yet come to light. Certainly what has been accomplished in these two areas is by no means commensurate with the agonized resourcefulness that has gone into the planning and execution of mass education in the arts of listening and seeing.

Meanwhile, engulfed by the enormity of the problems posed by the radio and the movie, we have tended to lose sight of other potent aids which science has quietly and less spectacularly placed at our disposal. The strange and obtuse neglect of recordings is a dramatic case in point. For here, permanently frozen and yet permanently fluid, we have at hand something which we can control, plan, motivate, and fit into our curriculum with maximum effectiveness. The objections which arise when we consider the radio and the movie as subject matter do not hold here. We do not, with recordings, have to depend on anything other than our own sense of the appropriate time at which to introduce them.

In most instances, the uses to which these recordings can be put suggest themselves immediately. We have taken the liberty, in other instances, of adding to these from our own experiences and from others that have come to us. Briefly, and in general, these are some of the basic procedures, techniques, devices, and activities that, to us, seem vitally enriched or dramatically initiated through the use of recorded material now available:

1. A more vivid apprehension of the sound values and cadences of poetry.
2. More effective teaching of good speech through the hearing of good models.
3. Vitalized study of Shakespearean plays and the works of others poets like Frost and Lindsay.
4. Enrichment of the context of ballads, lyrical and dramatic poetry through correlation with music.
5. Creative projects such as the setting of poetry to music.
6. Stimulation and guidance of the imagination through the auditory channels.

RECORDINGS

Linguaphone Shakespeare Series in 5 Parts. Recorded on 5 Double-Sided 12-inch Records. Spoken by John Gielgud. Linguaphone Institute, Rockefeller Center, New York City.

PART I

I. *The Merchant of Venice.* Gratiano's Speech (Act I, Scene I).

"Let me play the fool . . ."

II. *As You Like It.* Jacques' Speech (Act II, Scene VII).

"A fool, a fool! I met a fool i' the forest."

(Serial No. EEG.28E)

III. *King Richard The Second.* John of Gaunt's Speech (Act II, Scene I).

"Methinks I am a prophet new inspired."

IV. *Sonnet CXVI.*

"Let me not to the marriage of true minds
Admit impediments."

(Serial No. EEG.29E)

PART II

V. *As You Like It.* Jacques' Speech (Act II, Scene VII).

"All the world's a stage."

VI. *The Tempest.* Prospero's Speech (Act IV, Scene I).

"You do look, my son, in a moved sort . . ."

(Serial No. EEG.30E)

VII. *King Henry The Fifth.* King Henry's Speech (Act III, Scene I).

"Once more unto the breach, dear friends, once more."

VIII. *King Henry The Fourth.* Hotspur's Speech (Act I, Scene III).

"My liege, I did deny no prisoners."

(Serial No. EEG.32E)

PART III

IX. *Othello.* Othello's Speech (Act I, Scene III).

"Most potent, grave, and reverend signiors . . ."
"Her father lov'd me."

(Serial No. EEG.33E)

X. *Hamlet.* Hamlet's Speech (Act II, Scene II).

"O! what a rogue and peasant slave am I."

(Serial No. EEG.34E)

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PART IV

XI. *Hamlet.* Hamlet's Speech (Act IV, Scene IV).

"How all occasions do inform against me . . ."

XII. *Sonnet XVIII*

"Shall I compare thee to a summer's day?"

(Serial No. EEG.35E)

XIII. *King Richard The Second.* King Richard's Speech (Act III, Scene III).

"O God! O God! that e'er this tongue of mine . . ."

(Serial No. EEG.36E)

PART V

XIV. *King Henry The Fifth.* King Henry's Speech (Act IV, Scene III).

"What's he that wishes so?"

(Serial No. EEG.37E)

XV. *A Midsummer Night's Dream.* Oberon's Speech (Act II, Scene I).

"I know a bank where the wild thyme blows."

Puck's Speech (Act III, Scene II).

"My mistress with a monster is in love."

Oberon's Speech (Act III, Scene II).

"Thou see'st these lovers seek a place to fight."

(Serial No. EEG.38E).

Booklets containing the speeches may be purchased with the recordings.

Gielgud's interpretations, though somewhat frenetic and hysterical at times, and marked by some distinct Anglicisms, are always provocative and interesting. His too frequent tremolos may be a bit distressing to some, but they are not an unmitigated evil. In themselves, these slight aberrations furnish very fine material for class discussion, precisely because our American ears are unaccustomed to them, insensible though they may have become to local speech derangements.

These Gielgud recordings may profitably be employed in comparative studies with the Orson Welles and Maurice Evans recordings (see below). If they are taken alone, they might easily serve as a starting point for a discussion of American and English speech, interpretation of the lines, dramatic effectiveness, and so forth.

The following device has been successfully employed in some classrooms. The Gielgud passages are thoroughly discussed in class, either as part of the reading of the play or as part of an oral reading period. Students and teachers try their hand at the reading. Then, the records are played and discussed. It is best, for obviously strategic purposes, not to play the recordings until the pupils have made attempts at interpreting the lines themselves. To play the records before the discussion takes the edge off the dramatic contrast and tends to discourage student effort.

XVI. *King Richard II.* Four scenes, 5 records. Maurice Evans and Company. Columbia Phonograph Company. Masterworks Set No. 303.

A booklet giving the texts as delivered by Mr. Evans and assisting artists, and containing a synopsis of the play, accompanies the set.

These are truly beautiful and moving recordings. The soaring and compelling quality of Mr. Evans' diction is here reproduced with remarkable fidelity. To students who have not heard, and may never hear him, they are an unforgettable experience. Per se, they are indispensable to the English teacher, if only to demonstrate to the pupils, as few teachers can do, the dramatic power and beauty of Shakespearean verse when spoken by a master like Evans. The student who hears these recordings will never again read Shakespeare with the same ears.

A comparison of the delivery, interpretations, pace, and vocal qualities of Gielgud and Evans offers obviously effective material for discussion.

Suggestions similar to those applicable to the Gielgud records apply to this set of recordings as well.

XVII. *The Tragedy of Julius Caesar, Twelfth Night, The Merchant of Venice.* Mercury Theatre Version. Orson Welles and the Mercury Company. Columbia Phonograph Company, New York City.

Of all the recordings available for class use, the Mercury recordings are, so far, the most valuable because they have been made with the sole purpose in mind of vitalizing Shakespeare teaching. Assisting Mr. Welles in the preparation of this material was Roger Hill, Headmaster of Todd School, and John Housman, Professor of English and Head of Drama at Vassar College.

Accompanying the *Twelfth Night* and the *Merchant of Venice* sets is the almost incredibly sprightly *Todd Press* Shakespeare, edited for reading and arranged for staging by Roger Hill and Orson Welles. The informality of the advice to students, the biography of Shakespeare, the comments on staging by Orson Welles, and Mr. Welles' original drawings for sets and characters which enliven every page make this edition unique in the whole history of Shakespeare school texts. No one to our knowledge has yet offered so freshly exuberant an approach to Shakespeare as that to be found in these *Todd Press* volumes. It is a lost soul, indeed, who will not somehow be stirred, stimulated, moved and excited by this material so thoroughly scholarly and yet so utterly real and human. In some quarters, this is called "streamlining" Shakespeare. It really is nothing of the kind. It is just simply Shakespeare

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as he should be seen and read by our pupils.

A teacher's handbook, supplied with each set of recordings, contains notes on the plays, supplementary material, a recommended classroom technique, and a series of objective tests and answers.

These recordings can be used in an infinite number of ways. There is no need to bind oneself to the technique recommended in the handbook.

One thing is certain. However employed, these recordings will make Shakespeare teaching a memorable event for the pupils, and a rich and rewarding one for the teacher. The students, many for the first time, and all too many for the last time, will hear Shakespeare's language given body and fullness; they will see, through the mind's eye, characters come to life. They will follow with breathless interest the unfolding of plot and the development of character. They will be reading Shakespeare and acting him at the same time. The other recordings mentioned above are isolated scenes, vivid and dramatic, but still fragmentary. These Mercury recordings present a whole experience to the pupil, in a form that he will never forget. He gets his Shakespeare from those who have lovingly studied him and who have attempted to give him back to us in an immeasurably heightened form.

Those who have heard these recordings are unanimous on this score. The interpretations are alive and forceful. Some may cavil at various characterizations and emphases. But in a sense the very pith and marrow of Shakespeare study is precisely these disagreements. Students who have read and discussed the play in class will not remain indifferent to the Mercury version. And that is precisely as it should be if we are to give our pupils an abiding interest in Shakespeare. Better that they argue over interpretations than that they meet them with the stolid indifference and confusion with which we are all so familiar.

These Mercury recordings are a new, fresh, and effective attack on a major problem in English teaching—for Shakespeare is an inseparable part of the tradition of that culture we must transmit to our pupils. Here in the Mercury recordings, that tradition is given splendid, moving voice in a form dramatically intelligible to our students.

NOTE: *Educational Recordings* is planned as a new feature of High Points. It is hoped that it will, in time, be able to furnish teachers in various fields with valuable materials, devices, and hints for making more significant the work of the classroom. We should like to hear from teachers who have tried recordings in the classroom, or who would like to embark on such ventures. We should be glad to publish any actual experiments performed, or possible suggestions for further increasing the scope and usefulness of recorded materials. Send all manuscripts and inquiries to A. H. Lass, High Points, 500 Park Avenue, New York City.

We regret that at present we are not prepared to give any information as to types of recording machines best suited to classroom use, kinds of needles, care of records, and so forth. But we hope shortly to be in a position to supply this very necessary data to our teachers. Meanwhile, those interested can secure such advice as they may need by writing to Columbia or Victor Phonograph Company, or by consulting with their local gramophone shops.

A. H. LASS.
C. S. STEINGART.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

GROUPING OF PUPILS IN ENGLISH AT JAMES MONROE HIGH SCHOOL

Thoroughly imbued with the idea that activities in the English classroom must be significant and interesting to the pupils who are called upon to engage in these activities, the English Department at James Monroe has constantly modified the basic course of study and adjusted the assignment of individual pupils to grades and classes in order to meet pupil needs. From the first, the department believed that it was necessary to do more than merely to promote pupils from one given grade of the subject to the higher grade and to require pupils to repeat a given term's work when they failed in the grade. It adopted the principle that at all times pupils shall continue the study of literature with new, fresh reading material and that at no time shall a pupil be required to read and study again the same literary works as the result of failure in a given grade of the subject. Just what provision was made for the pupils who failed will be indicated later. The pupils who passed were early differentiated into groups of normal ability and aptitude and groups of high ability and special aptitude. For the latter, special classes were first organized, and finally a sequence of grades of English for these bright pupils in the subject was established. The details of this provision will also be presented later.

Pupils of normal ability in the subject who pass satisfactorily in each term go on from grade to grade through the eight terms of the subject. They follow the basic course of study in English developed in the school. However, even here adjustments are made to meet

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specific needs. In the first place, the individual teacher decides definitely the needs of a specific regular English class and adjusts her teaching, the materials used and class activity, both in emphasis and in the time spent upon each phase of the subject, in accordance with the needs of the particular class. The result is that every one of more than two hundred regular English classes is an individual class using materials and engaging in activities in terms of the interests and skill requirements of the group. In the second place, special English classes meeting special aptitudes are open to these pupils as well as to pupils who are generally bright in the subject. Such classes as the Journalism class, the Fourth Year Drama class, the Creative Writing class, and special Forum classes are available to these students in specific terms and they are assigned to these classes instead of being assigned to a regular class of the particular term or grade when individual aptitude and interest warrant such assignment.

The regular class group is, of course, the largest group in the school, running to 75% of the student body. For pupils bright in the subject and for pupils who are capable students in general, a number totalling nearly 10% of the student body, special classes are provided with an enriched course of study. The groups are here distinguished: first, honor classes for pupils who are highly capable in the subject; secondly, classes in English for pupils in the Honor School. The total register of these classes is about one thousand out of ten thousand pupils. Pupils in Honor English classes move practically automatically from term to term with high ratings, and remain in this sequence as long as they show high aptitude. Pupils in the Honor School move largely in block programs from term to term and may, in a given English class in the school, show wide range of abilities. Adjustments are made from time to time to place the weaker members of the group into regular English classes and to fill the Honor School English classes with Honor English pupils. In both Honor English classes and in Honor School classes in English, the teacher again determines the pattern and content of her teaching and of class activity on the basis of class needs, abilities and interests and, furthermore, Honor School pupils and Honor English pupils are offered the opportunity of joining the special classes in English mentioned above. In fact, they form the larger part of these classes.

These are the four groupings for pupils who show sufficient ability in the subject to maintain themselves either at a normal level or at a level above normal: regular classes in English, special opportunity classes in which specific activities are emphasized, Honor English classes, and Honor School classes in English. A total of 85% of the student body engages in the work of these classes, each pupil doing a total of eight terms of work in English. Among these pupils, however, there are a considerable number who need special attention in speech because of slovenliness and speech defects. The department provides classes in speech correction for these pupils and the work in these classes is supplementary to the eight terms in English. So far as conditions permit, these Speech Corrective classes are organized on the basic types of speech difficulty, and corrective work is done in terms of individual need for from two to five periods a week. Pupils remain in these special Speech Corrective classes until the difficulty is corrected or for as long as the individual pupil can benefit from the special training given.

These speech classes are also open to students weak in English in general. It is this group of weak students to whom we will now turn our attention. At the end of the first term in its history, that is in January, 1926, the English Department was naturally faced with the problem of the failing pupil in English. A plan was devised whereby the student failing in a given term of English was to be assigned to a class for such failing pupils in which the literary material of the higher grade was to form the content of the course in literature and in which the language study was to be adjusted to the abilities and needs of the group. About 8% of the student body has regularly been assigned to such classes. These classes are labeled *A* classes and are regarded as intermediary between their grade and the grade above. That is, a pupil failing in English 4 is assigned to a 4*A* class in which the literature of English 5 is studied but in which the language study is somewhat modified. The pupil in a 4*A* class who receives a passing rating less than 75% at the end of the term moves on to English 5*A* and continues in the modified course. The pupil in an English 4*A* class who receives a rating of 75% or higher is promoted to English 6 and receives credit for English 4*A* and 5. The opportunity so to retrieve a failure in English has always been an incentive to pupils in these *A* classes. Generally about 20% of these students have merited the double promotion. The point to emphasize here is that it is the teacher's opinion that determines double promotion, an opinion based upon the judgment that the pupil will carry on successfully the work in the regular class of the higher grade.

Certain modifications were introduced in terms of individual need for these failing pupils. In the first place, a pupil who for some reason had been absent a large part of the term and had not actually carried on the activities of the grade was not sent to

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an *A* class at the end of the term, but was again given an opportunity to do the work of the regular grade. An English 4 pupil who actually fails to do the work of English 4 because of excessive absence is assigned to English 4 again. In the second place, with a large student body spread over six buildings it is not always possible to organize an *A* class of a specific grade or to program the individual pupil to, say, the one particular *A* class in which he belongs. In such cases the pupil is labeled as an *A* pupil of the grade but is assigned to a regular class of the higer grade, the teacher being informed of his special needs. That is, a pupil who fails in English 3 and who should be assigned to an English 3*A* class is actually assigned to an English 4 class because of program exigencies. However, the English teacher involved makes an individual adjustment and regards the pupil as an *A* pupil of the lower grade. In the small Annex with a low scholastic student body, a good portion of any given class consists of *A* pupils of the lower grade; in that case the teacher adjusts class activity by the group method within the class to meet the needs of the two types of pupils, the regular pupils of the given grade and the *A* pupils of the lower grade. In addition, pupils who fail in English 7 or who are promoted from English 6*A* with a rating less than 75%, are assigned to an English 7*X* class; there is no 7*A* class. It is the opinion of the department that such students are insufficiently qualified for completing the high school English course in one term; they are required to spend two terms of English before graduation, one in 7*X* and one in 8*X*. In each of these groups literary material different from that of the regular English 7 or 8 class is read and studied, and intensive work in language skills is undertaken. It is, therefore, not possible for a student to benefit from the double promotion opportunity beyond the English 6*A* class.

The problem next to be faced is the problem of the pupil who fails in an *A* class. For a long time the department followed the procedure of grouping these pupils into *S* classes for which a special course of study was organized providing activities adjusted to the needs of these groups. When at one time the department discovered that there were eleven classes of such students, the Chairman proposed a study of these pupils to determine their ability in all subjects. The result of that study was the organization of a separate course in the school as a whole which was first known as the Straight Promotion School and is now known as the Practical Arts Course. Into this course are placed all students who are of the low ability type in general and a special course of study has been developed for this group. The *S* classes in English were abolished, but it was discovered that some pupils still fail in *A* classes, pupils who are not material for the Practical Arts Course. The department then further refined its adjustment of activity to pupil ability by labeling these pupils individually as *AF* pupils and assigning them as cases on trial in the higher *A* class. For example, a pupil who fails in English 4*A* is assigned to an English 5*A* class as an *AF* pupil on trial. The teacher's judgment of his needs decides whether he shall remain in this 5*A* class throughout the term, whether he shall receive credit for both 4*A* and 5*A* on the basis of satisfactory work done on trial in 5*A*, or whether he shall be regarded as a failure again. The adjustment in the last case is to send the pupil back to the original 4*A* in which he failed. Experience has shown that with the added incentive of retrieving his failure in 4*A* the student does sufficiently satisfactory work in 5*A* to earn promotion on at least a 65% level; when he cannot do that he usually leaves school. Ninety per cent of the small number of such double failures do succeed in earning credit for both grades.

The final result of all this adjustment of the failing pupil to the grade in which he can function most beneficially to himself is that the school provides *A* classes for the pupil who cannot maintain himself in the regular class, the *AF* grade for the pupil who finds difficulty in maintaining himself in an *A* class, and classes in the Practical Arts Course for pupils who are generally weak students. This last group forms about 3% of the student body. These pupils have in the past been kept together in special groups in English as in other subjects, but it has been found advisable to distribute them in English among regular classes where they are individually designated as Practical Arts Course students and where the teacher, knowing their special needs, adjusts activity to their abilities. This procedure is in the experimental stage. In addition to all these groupings for the low ability type, the department carries on in the first year the work in remedial reading as organized under the direction of the High School Division. The picture of the various groupings can best be seen by looking at any given grade of English. In grade 6 for example the following types of classes will be found:

1. English 6*H* for students bright in English.
2. English 6*H** for students in the Honor School.
3. A class in Journalism.
4. English Forum classes.
5. An individual pupil here and there on the grade in a Creative Writing class.
6. Regular English 6 classes consisting of:

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a. Regular English 6 pupils
b. Pupils who could not be programmed to a 5*A* class
c. Practical Arts Course pupils

7. English 6*A* classes consisting of:
   a. English 6*A* pupils
   b. English 6*AF* pupils who failed in English 5*A*
8. Speech Corrective classes.

An examination of the class organization of the department will reveal the following percentages of the student body in each group:

1. Students in Honor classes in English: 6%
2. Students in Honor School English classes (prospective for the full eight terms): 7%
3. Students in special aptitude classes: 3%
4. Students in regular English classes: 72½%
5. Students in *A* classes: 7%
6. Practical Arts Course students (in regular classes): 3%
7. Students in remedial reading classes: 1½%
8. In addition, 3% of the student body receive special attention for speech defects.

The system of grouping outlined above calls for the coöperation of the English teacher, the grade advisers, and the program committee of the school to make sure that the pupil is placed in that particular group to which he is entitled by virtue of credit earned and by virtue of his general ability and aptitude in the subject. It involves extreme care in the performance of clerical duties that result in proper recording of credits and those numerical indications that result in the proper placement of the pupil. It involves the organization of special classes with resultant difficulty in the programming of pupils to these classes, since only from one to three of these classes are available in an eight period day. It involves the careful scrutiny of pupil progress by the English subject teacher, upon whose judgment depends the placement of each pupil, with particular attention to those pupils, specially tagged, who must be given individual attention. It involves a control of the situation for every one of the ten thousand pupils in the school by the office of the department. It calls for great variety in the materials and methods of instruction and extreme flexibility in attitude that sees the problem of every individual pupil in terms of his personal needs, divorced from the idea of required sequences in the subject. It finally demands that progressive attitude among the administrative authorities of the school which makes them willing to break away from inflexibility in procedure and to carry the burden of providing for the individual needs of so large a student body. The pupils of James Monroe are fortunate in the fact that the school possesses just this type of administrative official.

Some problems in providing for special needs in the subject still call for attention. A large group of secretarial studies pupils, amounting to more than 30% of the student body, still engage in the general activities in English; their specific needs will have to be met, and arrangements are now being made to do something at least for those of these students who will be in the more advanced classes in secretarial studies next fall. In addition, the department is advocating the replacement of the present Four Years Regents Examination in English given just before graduation by a Regents examination in written expression to be given at the end of the third year, so that remedial teaching of various kinds and for various pupil types can be carried on in the fourth year on the basis of performance in the examination. Finally, the department has always questioned, and still does, the organization of our work in English that demands that the teacher "pass" or "fail" a pupil in a subject which includes two such very different abilities as taste and appreciation in literature and skill in the use of the language, when a large part of the student body can attain a high degree of effectiveness in one with no comparable achievement in the other. The department is thoroughly imbued with the belief that there shall be no "failure" in literature; it is as firmly convinced of the fact that progress in language skill must be determined by achieved ability and mastery; to link the two together may be a necessary administrative device, but it is a procedure that is neither realistic nor for the best interests of pupils. It is our hope that a realization of these problems and an attempt to solve them will result in further adjusting our organization and our teaching to the real and individual needs of our very large body of pupils.

FRANK A. SMERLING.
James Monroe High School.

A COURSE IN "PERSONAL BUSINESS"

For years educators have been advocating as one of the principles of education that of "preparation for life." With our complex economic system touching practically every man, woman, and child, the understanding of the many business situations that confront the average citizen may well be considered within the scope of our educational system. It is amazing to what degree the ordinary citizen today finds himself involved in business and financial situations which in the past concerned only a very few, and still more amazing how little he knows or understands about them. This is no less true of the educated and professional groups than of those less fortu-

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nately situated. There is hardly a person today who, some time or other, is not confronted with the routine procedures, financial intricacies, legal obligations, and accompanying dangers and pitfalls involved in such situations as purchasing on the installment plan, owning a home, owning a car, buying insurance, handling a checking account, investing, borrowing, paying taxes, and many others.

To meet the foregoing needs, a tentative course of study was planned and put into operation in February 1938. Later, on the basis of classroom experience a more detailed course of study was prepared and is now being offered as an elective course to academic seniors in this school.

It may be advisable to stress the fact that the course is in no sense one in Business Practice designed to prepare students to function in a business office, nor is it in any way meant to be a course in Consumer Education designed to make of the students intelligent purchasers of goods. It is essentially one dealing with fundamental economic relations as they enter the lives of the average citizen and therefore the Economics Department was selected to give the course.

As the following brief outline will indicate, the course is organized around six units representing situations that ordinarily confront the individual in his every day life. Into each of these units are incorporated the description, analysis, and discussion of organizations, institutions, routine procedures, financial hazards and legal obligations, arising in each situation.

Unit I—Buying, Paying and Borrowing to Pay for Purchases

A. Purchasing ordinary goods, (C.O.D., mail order, drawing account, charge account, etc.)

B. Paying for purchases by check
(opening a checking account, handling of checks and check book, indorsements, clearing, bank reconciliation, etc.)

C. Buying and paying for installment purchase
1. general considerations and procedure
2. financial aspects (procedure in financing, role of the finance company, high cost, etc.)
3. legal aspects (ownership, insurance, etc.)

D. Other means of borrowing
(procedure, bases of loans, rates charged, etc., re. pawnbrokers, industrial banks, licensed personal loan companies, unlicensed lenders, credit unions, etc.)

Unit II—Renting and Owning a Home

A. Renting a Home (general considerations, rights and duties of parties.)

B. Owning (Buying) a home
1. general considerations
2. financial aspects (initial payment, borrowing, sources of loans, expenses and liabilities, etc.)
3. legal aspects (title, restrictions, encumbrances, etc.)

Unit III—Providing for Future Security

A. Through Savings (postal savings, savings banks, etc.)

B. Through purchase of life insurance
(different types, suitability to needs, analysis of rates, reserves, loans, non-forfeiture privileges, Savings Bank insurance, etc.)

C. Other forms of security available
(social security, workmen's compensation, hospitalization plan, etc.)

D. Through Investments
(types of securities, principles of sound investing, mechanics of investing, relation with broker, etc.)

E. Preparing and executing a will

Unit IV—Problems in relation to Employment

A. Obtaining employment (application through various agencies, contacts, interviews, etc.)

B. Situations encountered (with union, collection of wages, bonding, garnisheeing of salaries, social security account, etc.)

C. Preparing and paying the income tax.

Unit V—Problems in relation to Traveling

A. General considerations (means and agencies, use of traveler's checks, letters of credit, etc.)

B. Special consideration when traveling in foreign countries (passports, visas, consular services, customs, etc.)

Unit VI—Budgeting (Summary and Review)

Although the course comprehends material from the fields of Business Practice, Law, Accounting, Commercial Arithmetic, and Economics, conventional texts have been found inadequate. Since emphasis is placed on the individual's contact with the particular situation, the only way to obtain the needed information is to go to the original sources: i.e. to the actual documents, to friends and colleagues having had first hand experience, and to representatives of the various agencies studied. At all times, however, care has to be taken to make sure that the points of view of interested parties are balanced by a consideration of the critics or critical literature in the

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field. This is particularly true in the study of insurance.

Becoming acquainted with the procedures and practices is only one of the objectives of the course. An intelligent understanding of the functioning of institutions such as the clearing house, personal loan companies, insurance companies, mortgage companies, savings banks, credit bureaus, and many others is likewise included.

Whenever possible students handle and prepare documents and forms. For example: the study of the rights and duties of landlords and tenants is based on the examination of a lease and lessons on life insurance on the examination of policies. Checkbooks are used and balanced, letters are written, income tax returns are prepared and contracts for installment purchases and for loans from lending agencies are analyzed. Technical terms are explained, whenever the need is apparent. Dangers and pitfalls are pointed out and wherever remedial agencies exist, the students are made familiar with them.

No account, no matter how brief, would be complete without some mention of student response and student participation. The scope and content of the course is to no small extent determined by the students. The relative time and emphasis given to the various topics is likewise determined by their interest and demands. Consequently, the units that receive the greatest attention are those centering around home owning, buying, life insurance, purchasing on the installment plan, borrowing from personal finance companies and writing letters of application for positions. That such should be the case is quite natural as there is hardly a student in the class who himself or whose parents are not actually or potentially involved in one or more of those situations. To such an extent has this been evident, that with little, and in some cases with no encouragement from the teacher, documents, forms, and questions have appeared in abundance. More often than not, lesson plans prepared in advance have had to be discarded as the questions raised by the students or sent by the parents proved a much better basis for discussion.

Thus, without their knowing it, parents through their children became a part of the class and helped to plan the course. Students reported that the dinner at home started with a discussion of what John had learned in the Personal Business class. Students' questions began invariably with "My father said," or "My mother doesn't know why," or "How could my father," or "My father disagrees with what we said yesterday." These questions or disagreements in turn became the basis of the next lesson.

What seems to have made the greatest impression is the fact that the students are learning about something that directly and personally concerns them in their everyday life. As a result, registration has more than doubled. To be sure, these students in later years will not remember everything that they have learned in their "Personal Business" course, but it can safely be said that they have been made aware of the complexities and dangers encountered in their private business relations and that, as a result, they will not so readily take leaps into the dark, but will be able to approach the situations that arise with a critical and inquiring mind.

KATHERINE KERESTESY.
Franklin K. Lane High School.

GROUP GUIDANCE BY OFFICIAL CLASS TEACHERS

Guidance has been definitely accorded its rightful place in our modern complex educational system. There are two types:

1. Guidance for the special student whose personal problems are discussed in private, and hence, is known as "Individual Guidance."
2. Guidance for the average student whose problems are those of the group, which can be accomplished in groups, and hence is known as "Group Guidance."

Of these two types, individual guidance has received a more extensive treatment than group guidance. The failure to develop a group guidance program may be due to the difficult administrative set-up involved in arranging for such program, or simply due to lack of interest or experience. The system of individual guidance seems to be more prevalent in our high schools. The student who has a special difficulty manages somehow to get assistance. Little, however, has been done for the average students whose problems are normal and common to adolescents.

At the High School of Music and Art, where the student body is highly selected and where individual problems are not overwhelmingly abundant, we have a splendid opportunity for a group guidance program. The student body at present consists of approximately 1,300 students. Each term some 1,000 students, who come from Elementary and Junior High Schools in all boroughs in the City, make application for admission. Their prior records are carefully searched for scholastic achievements, health, character ratings, etc. Only the most promising are

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selected. Those who survive this weeding-out process are then given a written examination to test their aptitude in art or music, and the 250 who pass highest are admitted to the School. This highly selective process creates an outstanding student body with whom it is possible to work out a special guidance program. The development of this program is made feasible through the official class room set-up.

The High School of Music and Art starts off with the following assumptions in its group guidance program:

1. Guidance is not a mysterious ritual performed only on problem pupils at critical periods.
2. Guidance does not mean long, technical interviews and detailed reports for everybody.
3. Guidance is intended for all of the students of the school as part of their education. Where problem cases exist, they are soon recognized and given special attention by the school's specialized agencies.
4. Guidance is an educational viewpoint which stresses the establishment of happy, normal relationships among all students and teachers, and recognizes individual differences. It is

"The systematic bringing to bear on the individual student of all those influences of whatever nature, which will stimulate him and assist him, through his own efforts, to develop in body, mind and character, to the limit of his individual capacity for growth."*

Each incoming class is divided into small official classes of about 30 students each, who remain with the same official class teacher for two years. From the very beginning, they are taught the special philosophy of the school, and are instructed how to adjust themselves to the school routine and requirements. This instruction is given during the "short" and "long" official periods, which we have devised. The short official period is held daily for 9 minutes each. In most schools, mere matters of routine, such as taking the attendance, reading of school bulletins, are the only matters taken care of during the morning official period. At the High School of Music and Art, these items are condensed so that at least five minutes of each day are devoted to more interesting matters. For example, in one class, during a discussion of inter-student relations, where a student reported that one boy was absent because of a death in the family, the class discussed the advisability of sending a letter of condolence. The relative merits of the printed card and the informal letter were considered.

The more comprehensive long official period is held once a week, for 45 minutes. Here, we discuss and develop important topics, such as:

1. Getting acquainted with members of the group.
2. Development of desirable pupil-teacher relationships.
3. Self development on the part of pupils.
4. Participation in the solution of school problems.
5. Participation in the discussion of timely problems.

In this way, emphasis is placed not only on scholastic achievements and success in art or music, but also on such matters as proper social attitudes, school service, club membership, etc.

The discussion is led either by the teacher or by a student who is designated chairman for the program. In the latter case, the teacher joins in the general discussion.

Special circulars are issued for the long official period, offering the foregoing subjects for regular class discussions, with suggested topics and questions for the class. Topics are selected which are appropriate, timely, educational and inspirational. The circulars are sent to each official class teacher, but it is not compulsory for the teacher to adopt them all together or in part. The teacher is invited, if he prefers, to use material suggested by members of his official class. Sometimes long official periods are given over to social gatherings of the class or grade.

The special circular for one official period suggested a discussion on "How to prevent failures." The leading questions were these:

1. What causes failure in school work?
2. What difficulties have you encountered in any of your studies? The following have been considered obstacles to success in school work:
   a. Postponement of work (lack of will power)
   b. Day dreaming
   c. Improper budgeting of time; too many interests
   d. Lack of interest
   e. Bad study conditions
      (1) Noise
      (2) Poor light and air
   f. Fatigue

Discuss each of the above difficulties, and attempt to formulate desirable practices to prevent failure.

For another period, the discussion centered on the subject of personal appearance. The following suggestions were offered for the program:

1. How people form their impression of others.
   Consider: appearance, speech, dress, manners, personality, opinions (write on blackboard)
   How would you arrange these items in order of importance?

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* Robert C. Clothier. "College Personnel Principles and Functions," *Personnel Journal*, June 1931, p. 10.

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2. Why some people take pleasure in appearing crude and careless.
3. In what ways high school boys and girls overlook the importance of personal appearance?
4. Proper appearance of a high school girl; a high school boy.

   Consider the following:
   The wearing of coats, rather than sweaters.
   The need for wearing ties.
   Cleanliness of clothes, rather than expensiveness of clothes.
   (No shirt sleeves, no visible suspenders, no tucked-in sweaters.)
5. Why the school is so concerned about setting standards of proper dress.
6. "Clothes make the person." Why is this so often quoted, although it is not true?
7. Why untidy clothes cause reflection upon one's home, one's family, and one's school.

At a recent long official period, the purpose of the program was to familiarize the students with the system of ratings adopted by the School on "Subject Rating Cards" (on which is recorded a student's achievement term by term in any one subject), and the "Official Class Achievement Card" (on which is recorded by the official teacher, term by term, all ratings in all subjects). It was felt that fairness to the students required that they should know that, in addition to marks for academic work, they would receive ratings for such items as personal appearance, enthusiasm, coöperation, initiative, etc. Behind all this was the desire to impress students with the fact that their lives are not limited to studies but embrace activities where the aforementioned characteristics count. To develop this latter point and to let them know that each card would be a cumulative record of all activities (curricular and extra-curricular) throughout the entire school course, the following topics were suggested for discussion:

1. Why are colleges interested in knowing whether the applicant was particularly interested in extra-curricular activities at the high school?
2. Employers are often just as interested in a student's personality as in his high ratings. Why?
3. A cumulative record means a record that is kept from term to term. Is this advisable? What are the advantages and disadvantages of having such records kept?

In May, just before "Parents' Day," the following topics proved of interest:

1. The "older generation" vs. the "younger generation." Compare their general ideas, their manners, their dress, their forms of entertainment (sports, reading, hobbies, etc.).
2. "Crabbed age and youth cannot live together." How true is this line in one of Shakespeare's songs?
3. "A child may have too many of his mother's blessings." How?
4. "What we need is a child labor law to keep children from working their parents to death." Is this statement a cynical exaggeration?
5. "Children have more need of models than of critics."
6. "Honor Thy Father And Thy Mother." How?

To encourage interest in the school paper "Overtone," discussion was directed in the following manner:

Unless other vital topics are scheduled for Friday, December 9th, the long official period may well be devoted to a discussion of our school paper, "Overtone." The editorial board will welcome criticism, both favorable and unfavorable, for they desire our paper to be truly representative of the student body.

Please urge all students to bring their copy of "Overtone" to the official class on Friday, for reading, observation, and criticism, to be sent to the editors. Criticism may be grouped under the following headings:

1. *Regarding news presented.* Have all important events of the past month been included? Is too much space given to the news? What items, if any, should be omitted?
2. *Regarding editorial policy.* Does the editorial policy of "Overtone" express the opinion and desires of your class?
3. *Is "Overtone" well balanced?* Does it assign appropriate proportion of space to clubs, to music, to art, to sports, to studies, to books, etc.? Should "Overtone" follow the conservative newspaper pattern, or should it be more original? If so, in what ways?
4. *Is "Overtone" attractive in appearance?* What improvements, if any, would you suggest?

The secretary of each official class, at the close of the period, is asked to submit criticism regarding any or all of these items to the board of editors. These suggestions will be welcomed and carefully considered.

Other circulars had to do with "Planning your vacation," "Decorum," "Mutal tolerance and understanding," "Topics which students find interesting for discussion."

Each official class has a student-secretary who keeps minutes of all official periods. He submits these, once a month, to the grade guide, who collates the material and sends a typewritten copy to all the classes of the grade. The grade guide is a teacher selected because of his

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special ability and interest in grade work. In this way, all classes get the benefit of new ideas and procedures. The grade guide also serves as liaison officer for all classes in the grade, with reference to all social functions. He also assists the Dean in individual counseling whenever needed.

The discussions in the long official period have practical application. They are intended to improve the students in their social attitudes, school service, coöperation. Students are informed, as above stated, that they are rated in all of these items and that their ratings are permanently recorded on the official Class Achievement Cards, which follow them through their high school course. In addition, subject teachers keep a detailed card for each student, giving such information as academic achievement, general comments and character rating.

All record cards are available to official and subject teachers. If additional information is needed, the official teacher or subject teacher supplements his cumulative record with information from the Dean's office. The Dean maintains a file of individual folders for each student, containing (a) his original application, (b) his prior school record, (c) the record of his aptitude test in art or music, and (d) his interview sheet on which is recorded all his visits to the Dean's office together with any special comments on him by his teachers. These folders of information are also available to all teachers.

Several times a term, after each marking period, all official class teachers check on failures, give study hints, encourage high scholarship, and discuss educational opportunities in high school and in colleges. The information on the "Official Class Achievement Cards," on the "Subject Cards," and in the Dean's folders, are invaluable for this purpose.

For the assistance of the official teacher in understanding his part in our guidance set-up, he is furnished with the following outline of his duties:

Guidance function of each official teacher:

(a) Matters of routine

1. Records, reports, attendance (parents' letters to be kept on file), "early dismissal" slips, carbon copies of change of program slips to be kept on file for the entire term.
2. Send to Dean's office students who have been absent or late an undue number of times.
3. Assist pupils to fill out Primary Promotion cards, checking these cards for strict accuracy against their achievement cards.
4. Copy pupils' ratings on achievement cards at the end of each term.
5. Be sure that term sheet has a complete entry for each student.
6. Examine report cards after each marking period to be sure that parents' signatures are not missing. Coöperate with the subject teacher.

(b) Matters of guidance

1. To have helpful, friendly, personal interest in each pupil.
2. To note cases of malnutrition, poverty, ill health, poor clothing, lack of sociability—special needs reported to the Dean.
3. To develop school citizenship and leadership.
4. To help in the orientation in school life and routine.
5. To discuss school program for the following term and to settle program difficulties which are not serious.
6. To attend social functions of the grade.
7. To note student's success or failure after each marking period.

We recognize that our 41 official teachers are not all suited for this work. There may be some who have a greater natural aptitude for their official class work. All have a full sense of responsibility toward their students, but may not as yet have the requisite experience for dealing with problems of guidance. Those requiring help receive the attention of the Principal and the Dean at individual conferences. Teachers are encouraged to take courses in guidance, and the theory of counseling, mental hygiene, adolescence and psychology.

Frequently, special problems are presented which cannot be considered in groups. They involve cases of special program adjustments, bad academic failures, special college planning, extreme lateness and absence, cutting, disciplinary infractions, requests for financial relief, etc. The teacher does not have the requisite time nor place to handle such problems, nor does she have the experience. These are matters for the Dean to solve. Here is where individual guidance comes into play. This, however, involves an entirely different subject from that under discussion here.

We, at the High School of Music and Art, work on the theory that since all our students are carefully selected, most of them are healthy physically and mentally, and are sufficiently interested in their work to provide their own impetus for success. Therefore, what they require is a friendly nod, a willing ear, and an expression of real interest, rather than a spe-

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cialist's diagnosis. For this, the teacher is qualified and adequate. Hence, we say, every student, normal or special, has a real counselor.

It is the philosophy of the school that each student is a member of a coöperative educational enterprise, and that each teacher has a well-defined responsibility to his students. All learn to recognize the growing need for understanding the problems of the adolescents' every-day life, their common needs, their recreational outlets. All cooperate in endeavoring to promote unselfishness, tolerance, courtesy, loyalty to home and school.

ETTA W. DVORKIN.

High School of Music and Art.

THE SCIENTIFIC METHOD AND THE FORMATION OF ATTITUDES*

In an age such as ours, of rapid social and economic changes, the social studies teacher is faced by a dilemma. How reconcile reason with emotion? He must teach students how to use the scientific method as an essential tool for thought. Correct use of this tool presupposes an absence of emotion, unbiased search for evidence, a careful weighing of facts, and suspended judgment. Reason is the arbiter. On the other hand, he is responsible for preparing students for good citizenship. This presupposes the inculcation of ethical attitudes. An attitude can translate itself into conduct only if it is tinged with emotion and becomes a habit. Unless an attitude has behind it emotional drive, unless it is practiced, it cannot be an effective force making for good citizenship. How then can the social studies teacher reconcile the use of the scientific method with an arousing of emotions and conduct toward a desired social end.

Let us first consider the use of the scientific method. From politics and economics arise a set of problems which are controversial in nature. These are the issues which divide economic groups, for example: labor, capital, and the farmer, and the issues which divide political parties; for example, a balanced budget, popular election of judges, and reform of city government. No one program has behind it the support of all the people. Here we may find diametrically opposite conclusions arrived at by different factions. The duty of the teacher is to treat such controversial problems with impartiality. Since the school serves the community and not any group within it, the teacher must rigorously know himself how to apply the scientific method and impart it to the students.

How may we teach the scientific method? Three practical recommendations have been made by the physical science teachers of this city. These are: 1. The habit of supporting with evidence all opinions, statements, habits, and beliefs, 2. the habit of questioning unsupported opinions and assertions, 3. the habit of being receptive to new evidence which may change opinions previously held. Let us see how these criteria of the scientific method may be used in the class room. Suppose that we take a lesson on the Wages and Hours Act. If the basis of this lesson was the editorial in the *New York Times* showing that the pecan workers of the southwest had lost jobs, and the report of Administrator Andrews to the President maintaining that relatively few workers had lost their employment, we would have two points of view presented for study. Similarly a study of the headlines in the various newspapers following the last election would have revealed varying interpretations based upon the character of the newspaper concerned. The election of a woman member of the labor party in England, opposing the foreign policy of Chamberlain, was given the third column of the front page in the *"Times,"* four lines in an inside column in the *"Herald Tribune,"* and was sprawled across the front page of the *"Daily Worker."* The habit of questioning editorial opinion, the habit of checking on sources of information so that prejudices and unsupported opinions may come to the surface, the habit of being receptive to new evidence, may all be formed by the type of exercise here outlined. We must remember, however, that the scientific method should be part of the daily pattern of thought and not merely present in specific exercises.

The attitudes that we wish to inculcate are accepted by all or the bulk of the community. These represent values adopted by the community. Since the school is the agent of the whole community, it is the duty of the social studies teacher to implant such attitudes. Among such non-controversial attitudes, we may list the democratic way of life, the scientific method, the bill of rights, and respect for the development of the individual to his fullest capacity. In the development of these values, the teacher should tip the scales positively so that the student will not view coldly and dispassionately attacks upon these values.

How may an attitude be taught? Let us take the democratic way of life as an example of a desired value. An attitude can be imparted only by suggestion, sympathy and imitation. The idea at the base of the attitude must be clearly understood; otherwise we have accept-

* Talk given by Minna Colvin, New Utrecht High School, at the meeting of the Association of Chairmen of Social Studies (Oct. 11, 1938) in a discussion of "Problems Facing the Teachers of Social Studies."

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ance by mere authority. The teacher must feel it; otherwise students will not catch his enthusiasm. It must be practiced; otherwise it does not become a part of the character of the student.

The teacher in his person, in his habits of thought, and in his conduct of the class room must be the embodiment of democratic ideals. We can not have a dictatorship in the class room or in the school and expect the student upon leaving it to adopt a democratic way of life. If the school is life, the school should permit a pupil-dominated class room, a teacher-dominated department, and democratic procedure for the school as a whole. It will permeate the student body only so far as the democratic ideal is part of the reality in the life of the teacher and in the conduct of the school.

Is it possible to reconcile the cold detachment of the scientific method with the warm, emotional drive of the attitude? The answer is "Yes." The teacher must be careful to discriminate between the attitude acceptable to most of the community and the controversial issue which should be treated by the use of the scientific method. For example: almost every American condemns child labor. A bias against the exploitation of children in industry may profitably be given by the teacher. The teacher, however, should be careful not to bias the student in favor of any particular method of attaining that ideal. Here groups differ. Some prefer the way of the federal amendment, some think that the matter should be taken care of by the states. The teacher should implant an attitude against exploiting children, and yet be careful in the discussion of the controversial issues to present all points of view and permit the student as the result of a process of evaluation to form his own conclusion.

Each attitude which is generally accepted, such as the democratic way of life, has back of it years of experience which has made it acceptable to the bulk of the community. Where a class has received training in the scientific method, postulates which are basic to the organization of our society may be challenged with relative impunity. They can stand the light of reason and can meet the rigorous test which will be imposed upon them by the scientific method. Thus, Communism, Fascism, or other challenges to our ideals need not be suppressed as topics for discussion. Students who feel that free speech should be suppressed or that racial or religious groups should be discriminated against, may in the environment of the class room which I have described, safely be permitted to "get things off their chest."

The teacher, however, through all-sided discussion, through example and through a tolerant and tactful management of the class may tip the scales in favor of basic institutions, civil rights, and community values. You may call this propaganda if you wish, but the times call for it, lest we be submerged under the weight of obscurantism and belief in brute force. The great ethical standards common to all religions, the work of great men of all races who have contributed to the advancement of mankind, must not be blotted out because we are afraid to take a definite stand before our students. We must view the achievements of the human race and the cultural values of our own nation with emotion, and this emotion must be translated into the lives of boys and girls.

MINNA COLVIN.
New Utrecht High School.

HIGH POINTS

ADJUSTING THE HIGH SCHOOL TO THE PUPIL

Periodically, teachers receive reports which cover a situation of which we are all aware. We know that the high school population has changed and that a new type has come into the schools. We know that schools organized to cope with the type of pupil of a number of years ago, no longer fit the needs of the present high school population. Fifty years ago, 6% of the boys and girls of secondary school age in the United States received regular instruction; today the population is 55%. Formerly only those went to high school who expected to go to college or desired preparation for commercial careers. Therefore, high schools were organized as academic or commercial schools. Today the boy and girl who are too young to be permitted to go to work attend secondary schools even though they are not qualified to do so and are not interested in careers for which the high schools were originally organized to prepare them. This has led to a development of vocational courses and subsequently to vocational schools. Today, then, our high schools prepare for college, for commercial careers, and for a variety of trades and occupations.

The real problem faced by the secondary schools, however, is not the preparation of children for careers but the realization that many children of high school age show no special aptitude. Guidance experts and psychologists agree that because a boy is not fit for an academic or commercial career is no justification for assuming that he will be fit for a vocational career. Our biggest difficulty is, then, for the mass of maladjusted pupils—those who do not go to college; those who will not be accountants, secretaries, or stenographers; and those who do not qualify for a particular skilled trade or occupa-

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tion. These will probably enter the ranks of unskilled labor sooner or later. In high school they usually flounder from one course to another, doing failing work, and generally wasting both their own time and wasting also the facilities of a school which is already overtaxed. The present set-up of commercial and vocational high school does not meet their needs. I refer particularly to the people of average or below average ability of which our high school population has a large proportion.

This problem was a subject of intensive study by a committee of teachers at Thomas Jefferson High School for a period of a year. The committee was organized to recommend ways of making the school fit the needs of the pupil. Its findings and recommendations may be of value to other schools faced with a similar problem.

First it must be remembered the Thomas Jefferson is primarily an academic and commercial high school. A few exploratory vocational courses are given so that it tends to meet the definition of what is called a comprehensive high school. It is a neighborhood school rather than a specialized school. It, therefore, has a mixed population in the sense that pupils' ambitions, their qualifications, and their plans are far from homogeneous.

As a preliminary basis of study, the committee decided that it was necessary, first to know our school population and to become acquainted with the junior high schools that feed us; secondly to acquaint these schools and, if possible, the parents of the children with the nature of our courses in order to direct those who do not belong here to other schools; third, to find out what variations are possible in types of diplomas and certificates; fourth, to make specific recommendations for changes so as to make the school more useful to the type of pupil we now have and expect to have; fifth, to plan long-run projects as well as to suggest immediate changes.

The first concrete result of these studies was conference of principals of the neighboring junior high schools called for by Mr. Arnold, the assistant superintendent. The result of this conference was intervisitation on the part of the junior high school teachers and some of our own teachers and advisers. Mr. Arnold's letter to Dr. Lieberman, dated Jan. 13, 1938, stated, "I hope that the result of the intervisitation will be a closer correlation of the work."

A sub-committee reported that other schools offer as many as five courses leading to diplomas. The report said that there are modified courses within subjects and the "Standards are low since these courses are generally given to below-average children. But, while they are low, there are real and definite standards to be attained."

The following summarizes the work done and the suggestions offered by various sub-committees:

1. VOCATIONAL SUBJECTS:

Twenty specific courses were suggested in six different fields. These were proposed as "exploratory vocational outlets for non-academic minded students."

While the courses suggested went far beyond our present curriculum limitations, they were offered with the understanding that this school would remain primarily an academic and commercial high school. At no time did the committee feel that the school should definitely give up its essential character and become a vocational school.

2. MODIFIED COMMERCIAL SUBJECTS:

The committee realized certain basic conditions which we have to face:

(a) Most of our commercial students will not become accountants, secretaries, and stenographers. Most who will enter offices or who will do office work will probably be engaged in routine clerical duties.

(b) Many of our commercial students who fail in bookkeeping and in stenography show that they can pass the work if the pace were slower. In other words, we have many examples of students who take two terms to do one term's work in stenography or in bookkeeping. These pupils are not hopeless in the commercial subject but they find that the regular course of study is too difficult for them.

Therefore, in view of the above situation, the committee felt that there is an urgent need for a modified commercial course leading perhaps to a certificate rather than to a diploma. The committee offered such a course in detail. Electives in this course provided modified vocational and art subjects so that the modified commercial course was correlated with the other courses offered for students not equipped to follow the regular academic or commercial course of study.

This modified commercial course offers not only bookkeeping and stenography but business English, business machines, filing, office equipment. The committee felt that many of our failures in stenography, for example, were due to the pupil's poor English. Training in business English would make better stenographers of many students. Also the important subject of filing seems to be completely neglected in our present curriculum.

3. ART COURSES:

Some members of the committee spent much time in visiting other schools and becoming acquainted with the work done elsewhere. It was felt that the practical aspects of the subject should be stressed rather than, as in the past, the classic side. The subjects suggested included: show-card writing, poster making, advertising layout, art weaving for boys, toy designing,

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window dressing, and so forth.

A wide variety of practical aspects of the subject were suggested stressing the vocational rather than the cultural. The committee felt that the boys or girls taking these courses would not necessarily be taught a trade, but that they would receive sufficient training to enable them to get jobs more easily. For example, a boy who can write show cards or dress windows could get a retail job more readily than one who is unskilled in these respects.

Many of our graduates take civil service examinations or are very much interested in this field, yet preparation for such examinations seems to have no place in our present courses of study. The committee believes that specific, correlated courses should be developed for those who wish to enter the civil service. No definite suggestions were made because it was felt that each chairman could offer a course in his department which would stress such preparations.

Throughout the year, two points of view were expressed by members of the committee. Some felt that specific preparation along vocational lines was futile since most pupils landed in whatever positions they could find and in many instances the training and the position were not related to one another. This committee felt that cultural courses should be stressed so that our graduates could make better use of their leisure time and thus become better citizens. Others felt that specific vocational training helped pupils toward getting jobs even though these jobs were not directly connected with cultural subjects and training for intelligent citizenship were the most important parts of the pupils' education.

Although this committee has gone far in its studies and feels that in the time allotted much was accomplished, the task is endless and much still remains to be done.

JACOB KLEIN.
Thomas Jefferson High School,
Brooklyn.

PROGRESSIVE TRENDS IN THE TEACHING OF SECRETARIAL SUBJECTS

The high school graduate of today meets with much more competition in finding placement than did the graduate of former years. That is to say, the young person who offers youth, enthusiasm, ambition, and a willingness to learn and serve loyally at a salary commensurate with his experience, must today face the competition offered by a fully matured adult with both college training and experience, as well as those intangible but inestimable factors which we term, in general, as maturity. We teachers, therefore, face a problem profounder, keener, and different from the set of conditions that obtained in the high schools as little as ten years ago.

Hence it is our duty to offer the young people in our charge not only as finished a training as possible, but we must prepare them psychologically for the new set of conditions which they in turn must meet, and place them as far as possible on a par with the competitive qualifications of older applicants for positions.

In short, in the present day complex business organization, we must give more to our high school graduate in order that he may offer more when the crucial test of applying for and holding a position presents itself. And what are these, as our business men say, "plus" values which we are expected to implant in the present-day commercial student?

I will use as the basis of my contribution to the subject of the trends in the teaching of secretarial subjects, our own syllabus in Secretarial Training. It states in its introduction that secretarial training in the high schools today is intended as a finishing course that will insure vocational competence in the field of stenographic employment. The technical stenographic skills and office practices and procedures, to a high degree of excellence, are indispensable. However, the acquisition of these skills must be coupled with the development of specific intellectual, moral, and personal qualities and traits that make for the right kind of personality.

In its statement of aims, we are told that they are four-fold, namely:

1. Knowledge.
2. Skills and how they are acquired.
3. Ideals and how to mold character and personality.
4. Power and the need for providing opportunities during the students' school days for the application of these knowledges, skills, and ideals to genuine office situations.

I would like to add to the foregoing those items which all experienced teachers have found to be helpful, and, in some cases, invaluable—namely, that drill is essential, that motivation must be constantly present, that students must be praised and encouraged. I have also a concrete recommendation to make. We should use, in our dictation, subject matter that will have a value beyond that of mere words. Everywhere about us, in the newspapers, magazines, textbooks, circulars from our own Board of Education, we read of the importance of instilling ideals of democracy and a consciousness of the world about the student. He must learn to work with other people, learn to subordinate his own desires, work for the common good so that all may be happy, whether he is in a school, in an office, or in the world at large.

The trend of the times has made it clear to teachers that we must not only strengthen students in the techniques of stenography and typewriting, business English, spelling, the composing of simple business

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letters, the exercise of judgment and initiative, but in the important technique of living, because the world of today and tomorrow must have people who will work coöperatively and who will have a cultural background that will enable them to see the larger horizon beyond their own immediate needs.

We, in our secretarial practice, classes have an opportunity almost as fine as that offered in the English and Social Science classes which have in the past taken the lead in such matters, to do our part in "Education for American Life."

There is a challenge to education today. Of course, we recognize the challenge and are willing and ready to prove that we too can help make better human beings of the students entrusted to our care.

MOLLIE S. ROSOFF.

Evander Childs High School.

CULTURAL MATERIAL IN ITALIAN

The basic facts in the history of a nation deal with the names of people and places, and with chronology. It therefore seems more advisable to have them learned from the start in the foreign language since so little difficulty in comprehension is entailed.

Last term I prepared a mimeographed sheet with the material given below, and distributed it at the beginning of the term to the first term Italian class.

NOZIONI ELEMENTARI DI STORIA ITALIANA

1. Roma fu (was) fondata da Romolo e Remo nell'anno 753 avanti Cristo.
2. I Romani conquistarono l'Italia e tutti i paesi (countries) del Mediterraneo.
3. I Romani dettero (gave) ai popli che conquistarono, non solo (not only) la lingua, ma le leggi e le istituzioni di Roma.
4. I Romani presero (took) dai Greci le forme dell'arte a della poesia. ("Gracia capta, ferum victorem cepit"—Horace.)
5. Roma cadde (fell) nel 476 (A. D.).
6. Dopo (after) la caduta dell' Impero romano molti popoli nordici, quali (such as) i Goti, i Longobardi, i Franchi, invasero l'Italia.
7. l'Italia resto (remained) divisa in molti piccoli stati fino al secolo (century) passato.
8. Nel 1815 Metternich al Congresso di Vienna disse (said) che l'Italia era (was) solo un'espressione geografica.
9. Nel 1859 Vittorio Emanuele II, re (king) di Piemonte e di Sardegna, con l'aiuto (help) di Napoleone III liberò la Lombardia dall'Austria.
10. Nello stesso anno le popolazioni dell'Emilia a della Toscana votarono per l'annessione al Piemonte.
11. Nel 1860 Garibaldi liberò la Sicilia e l'Italia Meridionale (Southern) dai Borboni.
12. Queste regioni insieme alle (together with) Marche e all'Umbria votarono anche esse per l'annessione al Piemonte.
13. Nel 1861 Vittorio Emanuele II fu dichiarato re d'Italia.
14. Nel 1866 la Venezia fu annessa all'Italia, e nel 1870 anche Roma, che divenne (became) la capitale dell'Italia unita.

LATINO, ITALIANO E INGLESE

1. Le lingue romanze—l'italiano, il francese, e lo spagnolo derivano dal latino.
2. Anche un gran numero di parole inglesi derivano dal latino:

Latino	*Italiano*	*Inglese*
forma	forma	form
natura	natura	nature
familia	famiglia	family
libertas	libertà	liberty
gloria	gloria	glory

A cursory glance at the fourteen sentences will show the reader that no previous knowledge of Italian is necessary, the Italian and English historical and geographical vocabularies being so very similar. The few common nouns and verbs which might not have been acquired during the first few weeks of the term are given in English in parentheses.

Upon distribution of the mimeographed sheets, I read aloud phrase by phrase and asked the class to repeat. After each sentence several students joyfully volunteered translations. (One or two who already knew a bit of European history were delighted to find "Italian" so easy.) The sentences were then divided into three assignments for memorization.

In the second term, we used this material somewhat differently. It was divided into three dictation exercises written and corrected in notebooks. After each dictation, there was an exuberant show of hands. The students had had little difficulty in understanding the passage and were impatient to tell what they knew. Later on in the term, the mimeographed sheets were distributed even to the second term classes to insure accurate memorization.

Once this basic knowledge was clearly fixed in the pupils' minds, later lessons in Italian history were less vague and of greater value.

The two sentences at the bottom of the sheet were added to explain the common Latin heritage of Italian and English, and to help the students appreciate the similarity of so many words in the two languages. Horace's famous line, added to the fourth sentence in parentheses, also helped by way of example.

At the end of the term, as a check on how much had been retained, a test was given to both first and second term classes, and answered

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quite satisfactorily. These were the questions.

RISPONDERE IN ITALIANO:

1. Da chi fu fondata Roma?
2. Da chi presero i Romani le forme dell'arte e della poesia?
3. Che dettero i Romani ai popoli che conquistarono?
4. Fino a quale secolo restò divisa l'Italia in piccoli stati?
5. Chi disse che l'Italia era solo un'espressione geografica?
6. Chi liberò la Sicilia dai Borboni?
7. Quando fu annessa la Venezia all'Italia?
8. Quando divenne Roma capitale d'Italia?
9. Chi aiutò Vittorio Emanuele II a liberare la Lombardia dall'Austria?
10. Da quale lingua derivano generalmente le parole che sono simili in italiano e in inglese?

These exercises were for students without an Italian background. In classes where the majority are of Italian extraction, and have correspondingly greater comprehension, a more ambitious program may be attempted.

It seems that, however the cultural material be distributed over the two or three year course, a good part of it can be learned in the foreign language from the very beginning.

ANTHONY M. GISOLFI.
High School of Music and Art.

REPORT OF THE PEACE EDUCATION COMMITTEE

The question of war and peace in the modern world is a matter of vital concern for the preservation of our civilization and of life itself. Nothing pertinent to this problem can be considered as beyond the scope of education. The Committee does not contend that the proper education of our children and future citizens can alone prevent war. It agrees with most historians that war is rooted in economic realities. Nevertheless, we feel that an adequate Peace Education Program can make a major contribution to civilization even if conducted only in peace loving and democratic countries.

BASIC OBJECTIVES OF PEACE EDUCATION

"War is not an act of God, but a crime of man."—Cordell Hull.

"We have learned by hard experience that peace is not to be had for the mere asking; that peace like other great privileges can be obtained only by hard and painstaking efforts." — F. D. Roosevelt.

"In the sphere of moral decision and choice the very refusal to choose, since refusal has specific consequences, is itself a moral act." (Conclusions and Recommendations, American Historical Association Commission on Social Studies.)

I. *To Show the Desirability of Peace:*

A. Advantages: Immediate
(1) Social (2) Economic
(3) Political

B. Benefits: Future

II. *To Show Horror and Havoc Wrought by War:*

A. Waste of life: irreparable

B. Economic Devastation:

(1) Destruction of wealth; vast debts; economic dislocations and havoc pave way for depression for both victor and vanquished; post-war unemployment, and so forth.

(2) Expenditures for armaments divert labor power and natural resources from creation of consumer goods which would improve standard of living.

C. Moral Retrogression: "Man's Inhumanity to Man"

(1) Loss of respect for sanctity of human life.

(2) Disrespect for law (domestic and international).

(3) Social progress shunted by exigencies of war which necessitate regimentation of mind and body.

(4) Illusion of war as a great and glorious adventure contrasted with its stark and bitter realities.

D. Sociological Implications:

(1) Survival of least fit—physically fit drafted for battle negates previous slogan of survival of the fittest (now a contest between infernal machines).

(2) Broken homes, mental ills, cripples, shell-shocked veterans, social maladjustments, delinquency, and so forth.

(3) Scientific research, deflected from humanitarian objectives and diverted to perfect engines of destruction (e. g., chemical warfare and aerial warfare).

III. *To Show Futility of War:*

A. Results of war contain vindictive seeds of future friction and strife.

B. No real victor, since post-war economic and political unrest afflict both the victor and the vanquished.

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IV. *To Understand the Causes of War—Past and Present:*

A. Fundamental causes distinguished from immediate causes.

B. Economic background of war.

C. Role of jingoistic press, radio, newsreels, and other propaganda devices to promote selfish aims.

D. Danger of unrealistic idealism which ignores actualities of contemporary international relations.

V. *To Develop International Good Will and Amity:*

A. Understanding of and urbane tolerance towards other peoples; their problems, spiritual ideals, and cultural contributions.

B. Brotherhood of man and sanctity of human life regardless of race, color, nationality or creed.

C. Critical thinking to avoid adoption of blind patriotism or racial, religious, or political bigotry.

VI. *To Develop Scientific Thinking:*

A. Realization of importance of Scientific Thinking involving suspended judgment in forming judicious attitudes predicated upon the knowledge of and tempered by the unbiased evaluation of relevant facts before reaching conclusions.

B. A spirit of tolerance for different points of view, and a full examination of those points of view in a scientific manner.

VII. *To Develop Conviction in Favor of Peaceful Settlement of International Disputes:*

A. Desirability of use of processes of conciliation, arbitration or judicial decision instead of resort to arbitrament of brute force.

B. Evolutionary change through orderly, legal procedure (law and order) vs. destructive revolutionary change.

VIII. *To Study Existing International Peace Agencies:*

A. Analysis of achievements and shortcomings.

B. Critical consideration of suggested improvements.

IX. *To Counteract Pernicious Notion that War is Inevitable:*

A. Inspire students with enthusiastic conviction that war can and must be conquered if civilization is to endure.

(1) Realization of advancing evolutionary strides in human progress since primitive man.

(2) Defeatist attitude leads into the doldrums of despair and eventually bestial bedlam.

B. Importance of carrying convictions into active support of the Peace Movement

X. *Critical Analysis of Policies by Which Governments Can Further World Peace:*

A. "Only enlightened public opinion, based on accurate information and full and free discussion of facts and issues can give to our nation real and adequate security." (Writings of James Monroe.)

Recommendations

I. Our Committee recommends that the High School Teachers Association request the Department of Education of the State of New York to make Peace Education a mandatory part of the curriculum in all the schools of the State educational system, from elementary through the college level.

The recommendation that Peace Education be made mandatory in all schools would go to the Board of Regents, the State Legislature, the Superintendent of Schools, the Board of Education, and the Board of Superintendents.

II. The detailed syllabus, content, and methods for carrying out this mandate are to be left to the individual schools, except that the practice is to be mandatory and within such general aims and objectives as the State Education Department may see fit to promulgate.

III. Our recommendation envisages all agencies of the school cooperating in this program. Thus, in the high schools, every department is to seek to devise ways and means to incorporate this program into its particular work. All school agencies, assemblies, publications, contests, clubs, are to consider this an integral part of their work. Significant dates (April 6, May 30, November 11, and December 25) present opportunities for organized schoolwide programs.

IV. The High School Teachers Association should communicate with the High School Principals Association to suggest the appointment of standing committees in every school as well as departmental committees to work on curriculum suggestions. Also, the president of the High School Teachers Association should submit this suggestion to the principals.

Educational Principles

I. Our Committee recognizes that in this work it is essential to develop a spirit of tolerance for different points of view. For that reason, opportunity should be provided for the expression of different views by students and teachers.

II. Throughout, maximum student initiative and participation

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should be encouraged in schoolwide programs as well as in classroom work.

III. Coöperation with community agencies of germane interest should be encouraged and fostered.

The suggestions included here do not mean that we believe that present Peace Education practices, where carried out, are inadequate. On the contrary, they are so excellent in most cases that we desire to have them extended. In this connection, the Committee discussed and attested to the value of such representative work as was done at Manual Training, Abraham Lincoln, and James Monroe High Schools; in the publications of the National Council for Social Studies of the American Historical Association, of the National Council of Teachers of English, and many others too numerous to mention.

(The Committee expresses its appreciation to Dr. Henry E. Hein for placing at its disposal the Peace Education Syllabus of the James Monroe High School.)

ABRAHAM TAUBER, *Secretary*,
Seward Park High School.

MINNA WEISENBERG,
DeWitt Clinton H. S.

ABRAHAM LEAVITT, *Chairman*,
James Monroe High School.

Peace Education Committee of the High School Teachers Association.

Boys Libraries, School

THE LIBRARIAN AS TEACHER

A student comes into the library asking for a book on medieval French history. He is referred to the catalogue. He stands, hesitating and a bit embarrassed. "But I don't know how to find it in the catalogue." The Librarian shows him how to find his particular subject and then explains the dictionary arrangement of the catalogue.

Again. A student knows that a certain author wrote a poem, the name of which he does not remember, which appeared in a certain magazine, the name of which he does not remember, but he knows that it appeared in 1932. The librarian leads him to the Reader's Guide, finds the section under "Poetry," and then shows the student how to find other things in that reference tool. Was the librarian here merely a mechanical dispenser of books, or a teacher?

In his informal contact with students, the librarian becomes literary adviser, reference guide, bibliographer, and personal friend, all at the same time, and leading the student consciously and directly toward a greater appreciation of books as sources of enjoyment and also as guides toward the solution of the many problems which are so perplexing in the everyday world in which he lives.

This is teaching, and teaching of the highest order. In the library, a student is a distinct personality. He presents a unique problem to the librarian as teacher. The methods employed with one student to get him to read, will not apply to another.

A student who reads only the sport pages of the newspaper can be given books on the same subject which will prove of great interest to him. From there, he is interested in biographies of his favorite athletes. Then adventure and travel, and so on. This boy can now be left to shift almost for himself. Another has a project on trust control. From a study of current legislation, she is led to American economic history, international relations, world politics.

The librarian, in order to satisfy the demands of his varied clientele, must be able to adapt himself immediately to each changing situation. He must know not only the sources of information but must be reasonably acquainted with a host of different topics. In order to serve effectively, he must know all the techniques of teaching and then some more.

The library is no longer merely a repository for books, or a study hall. The library is a laboratory. It is the closest approach to a life situation that the school system has to offer. And the librarian has to keep step. The old saw used to be "The librarian who reads is lost." That is now as outdated as chained books. The librarian who does not read is lost. The librarian who does not teach is lost.

ALEX FELDMAN.
Theodore Roosevelt High School.

THE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF STUDENT AID AT ABRAHAM LINCOLN HIGH SCHOOL

In the past five years, between five hundred and eight hundred pupils out of our school population of about seven thousand each term have been receiving aid from a fund supplied by the school. This fund is the result of contributions from various sources: a regular monthly voluntary contribution by teachers; regular weekly contributions, also voluntary, by the student body; a semi-annual allotment to the Student Aid Fund by the school General Organization; a similar gift each term from the Parents-Teachers Association; and money raised through special events, such as Varsity shows, bazaars, athletic contests and boat rides.

The aid given to needy students falls into the following categories:

1. free lunches
2. milk
3. wearing apparel
4. medical examinations
5. dental treatment

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6. school supplies
7. gym supplies
8. G. O. memberships
9. swimming dues
10. carfare
11. eyeglasses
12. special holiday baskets

The set-up of the organization to administer this aid is as follows: two teachers in the "E" Session and two in the "L" Session devote a period a day each to interviewing all boys and girls who are believed to require financial help. All teachers are instructed to send needy pupils to the Student Aid office. After the interview, in cases where aid seems necessary, a visiting teacher is sent to the home, where a thorough investigation is made, and a report and recommendation filed. The child is then recalled to the office and the recommended aid given. The point is always emphasized that this aid is to be considered in the nature of a loan, not a gift, and is some day to be repaid.

Card index files are kept with a record of all aid extended. Re-visits are made periodically to the homes of all students receiving help, to check up on the financial status of the family.

When a needy pupil reaches his sixteenth birthday, he is eligible to receive a monthly allotment from the N. Y. A. These eligible boys and girls are also interviewed by the four teachers assigned to this work, and the pupils who qualify are delegated to various tasks in the different offices, departments, locker rooms, lunch rooms, corridors, exits, and library, so that they may have the feeling that they are earning their few dollars a month, rather than being recipients of a dole.

I have been engaged in this vital service to our needy students for five years, and can testify to the vast amount of good that has been accomplished. A few students may occasionally try to "chisel," and try to get something for nothing when they are not in financial straits, but the number is very small indeed when compared to the hundreds that have been helped—in many instances actually enabled to continue their education, when, if the necessary aid were not forthcoming, it would have been impossible for them to carry on.

A. L. PLAUT.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

A MODERN APPROACH TO THE TEACHING OF ECONOMIC GEOGRAPHY

One of the major inadequacies in the teaching of economic geography in the high schools is the failure to properly conceptualize the subject. The composition of the average textbook is evidence of this fact; it is always a heavily detailed compilation of a multitude of facts delivered in a terminology that strikes terror into the hearts of our pupils.

The subject of Economic Geography needs no defense, but the general dissatisfaction with it in our schools is the product of a faulty articulation of its value and nature. The subject has been justified on the ground that our boys and girls ought to know that the things we use and consume come from different sections of the globe where variety of conditions prevails. The pedagogical result of this approach has been an assault upon the memory of our pupils and teachers. Our teaching of Economic Geography up to the present moment seeks to make of our pupils acquisitive creatures of a hoard of bizarre facts. This defeats the very basic aim of education: the development of the ability to use the various fields of human endeavor in order to better understand the world we live in.

As a beginning in the proper formulation of the subject of Economic Geography, we ought to agree upon some of the basic concepts of this subject.

I submit the following:

I. *Function of Economic Geography:*

One of the finest expressions of the function of Economic Geography is the following made by Professor Preston E. James at a lecture conference held at the University of Chicago in 1937:

"It is our belief as geographers that we can provide a realistic background of data established as exactly as possible on maps from which problems within the many fields of social science may be attacked with renewed vigor and greatly increased effectiveness. But we need to know more than the facts of distribution before a real understanding of these distributions is gained. We must know how these patterns came into existence, and, so far as possible, why. We must know whether as a result, the present pattern is likely to be significantly changed in the near future."

Although the "distribution" referred to above deals with the distribution of populations, the paragraph, nevertheless, contains those very principles that constitute the function of Economic Geography:

1. The discovery of exact data presented through maps;
2. The patterns that the accumulated data take and the causes and reasons thereof;
3. The changes in these patterns and the causes of these changes;
4. The use of this information and knowledge in the attack upon the various social problems confronting us.

Accepting the formulation of the function of Economic Geography as given above the subject becomes a vital study and students can be made to recognize more readily its importance in their lives.

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II. *The Functional Topical Division of Economic Geography*

1. Human Labor Transforms the Earth:
   Culture and Nature:
   a. What man has done to make the earth a human habitation — a record of success and failure — much work yet to be done.
   b. The earth submits to man —from the lowliest tool to the seismograph, and so forth.
2. The Territorial Division of the Earth:
   The Nation and Empire:
   a. Men divide the earth and fight each other, wasting time and themselves — The raw materials of peace and war.
   b. Peoples distribute themselves over the earth. Population Problem.
   c. Problems of Boundaries and territorial claims — changing the map instead of the face of the earth.
3. Economic Geography a Science for Peace, Progress and Plenty.
   a. The study of the means of making the earth more habitable and livable.

III. *Fundamental Concepts in Economic Geography*

1. The utilization of the physical properties of the earth depends on the level of development of the productive technique of social economy.
   a. The earth may be mankind's mother, but man's work and productive abilities determine the earth's fecundity.
2. The earth supplies the raw materials and the natural resources but their extraction and use are determined by modes of social and economic behavior.
   a. The gifts of the earth become the fruits of man through human labor and social endeavor.
3. The paradox of the coexistence of material wealth of the earth and the almost universal poverty of mankind is the result of man's social engineering.
   a. When man learns the science of the proper ordering of human and technical relationships the obstacles offered by the earth will be transformed into difficulties that are easily overcome.
4. The insufficiencies of certain groups among the human races are not the result of inherent attributes in them as determined by adverse environmental conditions. They are the result of technical and socio-economic inadequacies.
   a. Man changes himself by changing his environment.
5. Man is but at the beginning of his mastery of the earth.

The above approach to the teaching of economic geography will strike the desired balance and proper interrelationship between theory, fact, and terminology. It will humanize the subject by ridding it of its present cumbersome emphasis on fact and terminology. It will reveal and make explicit the basic principles underlying the subject and hence make of economic geography a genuine tool toward the better understanding of the world we live in.

MARTIN WOLFSON.
Brooklyn High School for
Specialty Trades.

IMPRESSION OF AN ENGLISH DEPARTMENT*

Stuart Chase, in his recently published book, *The Tyranny of Words*, might well have considered the term "English" and the meanings attributed to it. He might have discovered the various interpretations to be explained by intelligent differences in aim, short sighted biases, and sheer ignorance. For some, "English" is at once a curriculum and an activity through which the pupil should realize a more perfect integration with his world. For others, it is an instrument or an opportunity for the acquisition of social ideals. Others regard it as a body of knowledge with a chronological sequence, running approximately from Beowulf to Noel Coward. Some believe in social backgrounds as a necessary concomitant of English, some in the appreciation of literature for its universal qualities. Some don't take much stock in literature at all, excepting the purely current literature of newspapers, magazines, and radio.

On the side of expression, there are, first, those who don't believe in it at all, certainly not in self-expression. They advocate teaching spelling, punctuation, and the commoner varieties of sentence pattern, designedly closing an eye to spiritual development in the interest of more practical things. Then there are the regretters who regret that we are unable to combat the errors and vulgarities in the speech and writing of our underprivileged pupils by the simple expedient of teaching lists of words and grammar. Among the advocates of creative speech and creative writing, we find those who would restrict these activities to the talented few, others who would open them to all. "English" in its appreciative and expressive phases has been the

* Presented to the faculty of Evander Childs High School on October 17, 1938.

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object of a great variety of affectations, wooed by college admissions boards, psychological laboratories, department stores, and chambers of commerce.

"English" has also outrun other departments in its vulnerability or adaptability to changes in educational theory and procedure.

We have functioned in the traditional recitation, the socialized recitation, supervised study, the laboratory period, the project method, the Dalton Plan, the Unit Plan. At the present writing, the Unit Plan, modified to accommodate teacher objectives and pupil capacities, is a fruitful procedure in the English Department of Evander. The socialized and the traditional mode of recitation are used as well.

If the variety and multiplicity of these meanings of English have caused some confusion in your mind, I am quite happy. If you suspect my presentation of the complexity of our problem to be entirely flippant, you are mistaken. Furthermore, do not get the idea that we have dodged the problem, that we have despised suggestions from dependable sources. Our problem is a complex one. In introducing the work of the English Department, I merely strive to have you reject the oversimplification which you might entertain. In the study of life, in the study of literature, in the nurturing of ideals, in the development of personality, in the pedestrian and creative phases of spoken and written expression, there are a hundred desirable objectives for one which we may reasonably hope to reach. Time is involved. Varieties of pupil and teacher personalities are involved. But I insist that your English Department has seldom, if ever, lost sight of the ease with which, by wishful thinking, a problem can be over-simplified.

What, then, do we attempt to do and how do we go about it? I should like to answer this question in a kind of Credo. We believe, then, in the sacred integrity of the children placed in our care. We believe in the liberties and responsibilities which they must learn to assume if democracy is to endure in a changing world. We believe that expression, largely in speech, to a smaller degree in writing, is the most important activity, the most desirable skill to be developed in our pupils. We do not believe in "sounding brass or tinkling cymbals," in speech or writing which conforms to an elegant pattern while conveying an inelegant idea.

We believe in critical thinking, in the development of an acute, critical mind, sharpened to penetrate the problems confronting man today, sharpened to evaluate the solutions offered by leaders actuated by a multiplicity of motives. Among other things, our Democracy must stand or fall on the collective thinking of our people . . . We believe in fine feeling, in the development of the human spirit's tactual capacity. We believe in the efficacy of viewing "all men," their aspirations, joys, sorrows, their pitiful and glorious history sung in the sweet, clear voices of their prophets and poets —always with a view to the perfection of "this man." In short, our first belief is in our duty to condition the growth of a type of man who is moral in the broadest and deepest meaning of the term, whose morality is not compartmental, but functional. And for this end, we believe literature whether old or new, exists to be used, studied, assimilated. In the case of most men, if literature does not exist for life, it had better not exist at all. It is apt to be an affectation in a world sadly in need of honesty.

We believe, furthermore, in teacher personality, in teacher intelligence, in teacher participation in the formulation of curricula and in the institution of procedures. As far as my observation has extended, our teachers have been willing to assume the responsibility inherent in this privilege.

We believe in breadth and richness of reading opportunity and, as a result, under a generous administrative policy, have been able to provide our pupils with a great variety of books. The class room library furnished from our own book room or from the school library is a growing institution in our department.

We believe in progressiveness in education. During my fourteen years in the department, I have never noted a willingness to ride along. Our department meetings have been the scene of lively discussion and healthy conflict. A constant, unexcited evaluation of our teaching procedures in terms of the collective experience of the department and of the profession as a whole has been most stimulating. We believe in disagreement, discussion, resolution and concerted action as a democratic way of life, as a democratic educational procedure.

Our work, as a result of democratic supervision and democratic acceptance of responsibility, is varied. We try to vary it according to the abilities of our pupils despite the fact that our pupil load is very heavy. It is varied or conditioned according to the personalities of our teachers, so that our pupils will profit through contact with teachers not unduly fettered by curricular chains or administrative dogmatism. Teachers do differ tremendously in what they have to bring to the class room situation. They differ in their backgrounds, their ideals, their attitudes toward literature, their preferences for teaching techniques, their abilities to nurture the development of various phases of pupil personality. In our English classes, for instance, some teachers show a preference for and a greater skill in the traditional form of recitation, others in the

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socialized recitation, others in the unit system.

How, then, you may ask, can we justify such variety of content and activity? The answer is rather simple. We haven't so startling a variety of content and activity when you conceive of our curriculum as children with their great variety of needs and as teachers with their differences in background, interest and skill. Our variety of materials and procedures is predicated on the necessity of providing a variety of approach to a variety of need. But teacher freedom? Isn't that rather dangerous? How justify that? Be it said to the praise of English teachers and supervisors throughout the country, they are trying to face the challenge of democracy and have realized that you just can't pass the spirit of freedom on to children through the regimentation of teachers.

Can we measure what we do? Can we measure our effectiveness in the slow process of cultivating the minds of a growing generation? There are certain dependable measurements for certain fundamental skills. They are dependable, when used skillfully and not overinterpreted, to reveal the relative efficiency of individuals and groups in the tool phases of English work. But for most of our work as for most of yours, no matter how exact the science, its efficacy stands revealed only in more subtle ways and will reach its supreme test in the contribution our pupils make to the building of the eternal city in the heart of man.

I feel that this description of the functioning of the English teacher in Evander Childs High School is sound. It is, at least, my reading of the temper and activity of our department during fourteen years of my presence therein.

"If this be error, and upon us proved,
We never taught, nor no man ever loved."

JOSEPH J. SEXTON.
Evander Childs High School.

MENTAL HYGIENE THROUGH THE STUDY OF LITERATURE

Mental hygiene is a science which attempts to prevent and alleviate emotional conflict. While it is important for every school to have on its staff persons specially trained in mental hygiene and guidance procedures and equally important for every classroom teacher to be sensitive to the inner lives and problems of adolescents, the work of specialists and teachers will be greatly aided if the mental hygiene implications of the various subject-matters are fully realized.

The English classroom allows many opportunities for applying mental hygiene principles,* the study of literature affording particularly direct avenues to the emotional concerns of young people. The book report topics presented here have been found very helpful in this connection though they also serve to enhance the interest of literature for its own sake.

The student is instructed to sum up in a few sentences the theme of the book he has read, the limit here being 100 words. He is then to discuss the story in terms of any three topics, devoting about a paragraph to each one. His report ends with a question that arose in his mind about something in the story which puzzled him or which he failed to understand. At the conclusion of the student's presentation, which is read or delivered orally to the class, his classmates and the teacher have the privilege of asking him to further discuss the book in light of any topics they deem particularly suitable, should the book [illegible] interesting to the group. These topics are designed for novels, plays and short-stories as well as for non-fiction of all kinds. They may also be used with motion pictures and radio programs.

For many of the topics the writer is indebted to suggestions originally made by students. Over a period of several years the young people were invited to offer new topics and some of the best ones were received this way, though many required re-phrasing. Topics 16-22 inclusive were suggested by Charles W. Raubicheck, co-chairman of the English Department of Evander Childs High School. The list of topics has been revised five times and represents the result of classroom experience with about 3000 students of all terms of English in high school.

1. Does the book answer any questions or solve any perplexities or problems you have faced?
2. Does it say or show something you have felt or noticed but haven't been able to find words for until now?
3. Does it contain experiences which (a) you know and already have had; (b) you know about but never have had yourself; (c) you never knew until you came across them now in the book?
4. How does the setting compare with your own surroundings?
5. Are the people of the story similar to or different from the people you meet in everyday life? Are they any more kind or cruel, more or less educated, more or less tolerant, wiser, more or less superstitious or more thoughtless than the people you know?
6. Are the things that happen to these characters more or less exciting, interesting, complicated, depressing, or inspiring, than the things that happen to you and to people you know? Would you exchange your life for theirs?
7. State an important problem that one or more characters is faced with and tell whether each solves his problem successfully or not?
8. Did each of the characters deserve the fate he received? Does the author play favorites? How is the character's fate related to what he is and what he does?
9. Does it contain the kind of villain you *admire*, hero or heroine you *dislike*?
10. Was there any time when you wanted to be with a particular character, talking to him or her, advising, helping, hurting?

* A full treatment of this subject will be found in the author's paper, "Mental Hygiene through Procedures in the English Classroom." Yearbook of the New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education, 1937.

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11. Has the book given you anything which you can apply to your own experience, enable you to handle life more successfully?
12. With what attitude towards life does this leave you? Fear, hope, joy that you are alive, suspicion of people, discontent with your surroundings?
13. Does the book remind you of your troubles, help you forget them or suggest new ones?
14. Judging by what has happened to the people in the story and the causes responsible, what factors seem to make for our happiness in life? What do human beings want, and why do some get what they want, and others don't? Why are some able to overcome obstacles while others cannot?
15. How long will the author's solution of his character's problems endure?
16. This book shows that revenge is (a) a duty; (b) a vice; (c) a folly.
17. The slightest incident can alter an entire life.
18. To what extent does this book give instances of people who suffer or who prosper because of devotion to ideals or principles?
19. Under the same circumstances I would have felt or acted as one of the characters did.
20. I have gained a greater sympathy and understanding of the thoughts and feelings of people who are not exactly like me, or of people I once misunderstood.
21. Why I would like certain people to read this book—old—young—rich—poor—contented—handicapped—timid—reckless—selfish—successful—beaten.
22. Does your book tell what it means to be rich, poor, middle class? Does it show which one of these classes is better off, happier, healthier?
23. Does this book make you forget your surroundings?
24. Which character does the author like the most?
25. Does the book throw any light on why authors put their favorite characters to death?
26. Select those students in the class whose personalities and temperaments, as far as you can tell, most resemble that of characters in the story. In each comparison, try to prove by specific illustrations that a resemblance really exists between a person in the story and one in your class.
27. If you were in the place of your favorite character, what would you have done?
28. Do you like happy or unhappy endings? Explain, with examples from your book.
29. Can you see resemblances between characters in your book and members of your family, your friends, your teachers?
30. In what ways are you like or unlike the chief character?
31. Is the motive for committing a wrong act or a crime a good one?
32. What is the most important thing that ever happened to the chief character (or to your favorite character) and compare this with the most important thing that ever has happened in your life.
33. Take your favorite character and make a list of his best points and his worst. How do his good habits and qualities compare with those of some particular person you know very well in real life? Compare his bad habits and qualities with those of some person you know well.
34. Is there one completely happy character in the book? If so, describe what you think are the reasons for his happiness.
35. Select one of the most unhappy characters in the book and describe what you think are the reasons for his unhappiness.
36. What seems to be the controlling force in your favorite character's activity: reason (intelligence), blind impulse, some powerful emotion like hate or fear, obedience to discipline, sense of duty, loyalty, desire to do good, etc.?
37. At what moment did your favorite character experience his greatest triumph? Compare this with one of your own greatest triumphs.
38. Did the book encourage or spoil any hope you had for the future?
39. Did the book end the way you wanted it to? Did the book end too soon? Would you like to hear more about the characters?
40. Does your book show that it is better to live on the spur of the moment, taking the consequences, or that it is wiser to choose only those experiences which we are sure will bring us happiness?
41. Would you like to have any particular character as father, mother, friend, teacher, sweetheart, brother, sister, husband, wife, next-door neighbor, companion on a camping trip, near you in an emergency?
42. According to your book, what do most young people need in order to be happy? Take the chief young characters one by one and show what each one needed and wanted and whether he obtained it or not.
43. Which character in the story is least understood by the others?
44. Do the lives led by some of the characters make you very dissatisfied with your own life and surroundings?
45. Does the story throw any light on whether a person should pay his entire life for one mistake he has made?
46. Did anyone in the book try to reach a certain goal but fail to do so? Was he happier because he did *not* get what he originally wanted? If you were in his place, do you think you could accomplish what he failed to do? How?
47. Does the author exaggerate the innocence, kindness, wickedness, stupidity, etc., of any characters in the story?
48. Do you prefer your villain to remain completely bad to the end of the story or would you rather have him finally turn good and reform?
49. What is the worst fault of your hero or heroine and compare that with the worst faults in real people you know?
50. Does the villain (or the meanest or cruelest person in the story) have any good qualities? What are they?
51. Instead of allowing the story to end at the point where your author concluded, continue it for another twenty years and tell what you think each of the characters was like at the end of this time.
52. Which individuals in the story are the best or least adjusted to their environment, the most or least determined to achieve some goal? Which seems to get the most or the least out of life?
53. Why do people hurt and fail to understand each other?
54. Does any character take delight in making others miserable?
55. What draws people together in the book: the same tastes, different tastes, chance, selfish motives, dislike of the same thing, loneliness?
56. Does the story show whether it pays to be good, true, honest or not?
57. According to your book, should a person take the law into his own hands?

GEORGE LAWTON,
Evander Childs High School.

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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND NOTES

MATHEMATICS MEETING

The Association of Mathematics Chairmen of New York City and the Association of Teachers of Mathematics of New York City announce a Joint Annual Luncheon, preceded by a Panel Discussion, on Saturday, March 11, 1939 at the Hotel Astor. The principal speaker will be Professor Oswald Veblen, of the Institute of Advanced Studies at Princeton University. His subject will be: "A Modern Approach to the Elementary Euclidean Geometry."

The Committee consists of: Mr. S. Welkowitz of Franklin K. Lane H. S., and Dr. N. Lazar of Alexander Hamilton H. S. (Discussion); Mr. S. I. Greitzer of Benjamin Franklin H. S. (Arrangements); Mr. E. Schacker of Benjamin Franklin H. S. (Publicity); and Mr. S. H. Barkan of Benjamin Franklin H. S. (Chairman).

The program will be of interest to teachers of Senior High Schools, Junior High Schools, Evening Schools, and to all concerned with the teaching of mathematics.

EMANUEL SCHACKER.

CONSUMER QUIZ

Teachers of consumer education or those who introduce consumer problems in related courses will be interested in the *Consumer Quiz* published monthly by Consumers Union. Each Quiz outlines two projects in the consumer field, describing in detail the method of procedure to be followed by the class. Accompanying every project is a bibliography including, whenever possible, government pamphlets and other publications which may be obtained free or at nominal cost.

The projects are varied in character. Some, such as the one on tests for wool fabrics contained in the November issue, would be suitable for science classes. Others, for example, those pertaining to legislation affecting consumers, would be of more interest to civics teachers.

In addition to the projects, each quiz contains questions and answers based on the current issue of Consumers Union *Reports* and a brief section devoted to the activities of consumer education classes throughout the country.

Sample copies of the *Consumer Quiz* may be obtained by writing to Consumers Union, 55 Vandam Street, New York City. After January 1, 1939, the address will be changed to 17 Union Square West, New York City.

EVALUATION MEASURES NEEDED

The need for more objective evaluation of educational programs and methods was strongly emphasized at the twenty-eighth annual meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English, held in St. Louis November 24-26, 1938.

"The curriculum revision movement, which has taken the country by storm, has in too many communities been actuated by the incentive of keeping-up-with-the-Joneses rather than by definite and worthy purposes of reorganization," Harold Spears, director of research and secondary education in the Evansville, Indiana, public schools, told the convention delegates. "To revise the curriculum has become the popular thing to do. It is doubtful if a school system can get much advantage out of curriculum reorganization unless the program indicates sooner or later a definite philosophy or point of view. Otherwise, revision is apt to become mere tinkering." Among the weaknesses of the curriculum movement, Dr. Spears mentioned: the fact that changes in curriculum have not been accompanied by changes in administrative technique; lack of needed instructional supplies; and unwillingness to set aside the old. Curriculum reorganization must place more faith in the findings of research, he added.

A breathing-spell during which the rapid educational changes of the past decade can be appraised was recommended by Marquis E. Shattuck of the Detroit Public Schools and Wayne University, retiring president of the Council. "The doctrine of a changing world has been so generally accepted that we have been led into a line of reasoning which argues that change is ever for the better," he said. "To make the necessary appraisal, we must perfect our tools for evaluation and guard carefully the selection of those who use the tools and those who interpret results."

The new basic formula for modern education takes into consideration pupils' individual differences and their possibilities, Dr. Malcolm MacLean, director of General College, University of Minnesota, reported. "We are shifting our point of view away from snooping out and bearing down on the errors and blunders of our youngsters in English and learning to search for and foster talent in whatever direction it may rise. We will learn in time to take the youngster where he is, even it be in a stage of absorption in the pulps, and help build for him a larger experience in the reading of current and classic literature, instead of damning him as a pulp reader." The chief job in English, Dr. MacLean asserted, is the training of the great number of students, who will never become scholars, in skills they will need and use. He prophesied that eventually graduate schools will no longer require a reading knowledge of German or French of all students, since only an occasional person has need for these skills.

A present-day educational trend was evidenced at the meeting by the number of references made by speakers at the sectional conferences to semantics and "the semantic approach."

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Officers of the National Council of Teachers of English who will serve in 1939 are: Miss Essie Chamberlain, Oak Park Township (Illinois) High School, president; E. A. Cross, Colorado State College of Education, first vice-president; Miss Angela Broening, Baltimore Board of Education, second vice-president; W. Wilbur Hatfield, Chicago Normal College, secretary-treasurer. New York City was chosen as the next meeting-place, November 30-December 1, 1939.

COAST-TO-COAST RADIO SERIES SPONSORED BY OFFICE OF EDUCATION, WASHINGTON

Wings For The Martins

Every Wednesday from 9:30-10:00 p. m., E.S.T., Coast-to-coast NBC Blue network with the cooperation of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers.

Feb. 1—*Planning for College*

The Martins make plans for the September college problem in February. There is a reason for this. Tune in on the Martins, and hear them discuss Patricia's plans for college. There is a tip in this program for many another youngster with high school behind him and a question mark ahead.

Feb. 8—*No More Movies This Month!*

What do you know about motion pictures? Have you a favorite actor? Producer? Would you like to know what children learn from movies? . . . If you are dissatisfied with the present run of movies, what can you do to improve them? How can you balance the family's movie budget? The Martins' experiences will help you.

Feb. 15—*What? No Night Work?*

Time was when Dad had to work hard to get the correct answer to Sonny's arithmetic problem. How many a mother would prefer to hear the children "recite" than to help them with their "night work"! But "home work" is different in the Martin family. They go to a modern school.

Feb. 22—*Places to Learn Outside the School*

Woods, fields, parks, museums, playgrounds, theaters, factories—dozens of places to learn outside of school. Hobbies, games, hikes, field trips, bird study, collecting, photography—scores of things to take part in! The Martin children get new ideas from their cousins in a country school.

The World Is Yours

Every Sunday from 4:30 to 5:00 p. m., E. S. T. Coast-to-coast NBC Red network with the cooperation of the Smithsonian Institute.

Feb. 5—*Your Home*

The panorama from cave and mud hut to the modern air-conditioned, steel-framed home! Learn what the home of today contains that has been handed down from the ancients, and the new developments in modern design, construction, and comfort.

Feb. 12—*Great American Biologists*

The biologist may be a laboratory researcher seeking new facts through his microscope, or he may be an outdoor naturalist learning through careful observation the hidden secrets of nature. He may be a Linnaeus, a Huxley, an Audubon, an Agassiz, or a David Starr Jordan. "The World Is Yours" broadcast will tell the story of some of America's great biologists and of the outstanding contributions they have made to the "science of life."

Feb. 19—*The Story of Aluminum*

Aluminum is the most abundant metal in the earth's crust, although prior to the scientist's research it was exceedingly difficult to find. Today it is a metal familiar to almost everyone. It is commonly used now in construction of airplanes, railroads, motor buses, and cooking utensils.

Feb. 26—*Cave and Cliff Dwellers*

The first records of the American Aborigines in the Southwest show them as makers of baskets and textiles. They used the spear as a weapon instead of the bow and arrow. Listen to the colorful drama of the life of these early peoples.

Americans All—Immigrants All

Every Sunday from 2:00 to 2:30 p. m., E. S. T. Coast-to-coast CBS network with the coöperation of the Service Bureau for Intercultural Education.

Feb. 5—*Jews in America*

Coming from all parts of Europe, Jews began settling in the United States early in the Colonial period. Today four and a half million Jews are making their home in the United States. Hear of their contributions in music, science, literature, mathematics, and industry.

Feb. 12—*Slavs in America*—I

From Russia, Lithuania, Latvia—came the Slavs. They became workers in steel, packing house laborers, mill hands, farmers. They brought with them not only their brawn, but the same light and gleam in their souls that inspired the music and literature of their great masters, of a Tschaikowsky, or of a Tolstoy.

Feb. 19—*Slavs in America*—II

The great surge of humanity from the Slavic countries continues. The pounding of peasant boots is heard from Poland to Delaware, from Yugoslavia to Wisconsin and Minnesota, from Rumania to Ohio. America gives them a safe haven. They give to America prosperous farms, busy factories, song, music, the genius of a great people.

Feb. 26—*Orientals in America*

Orientals came: Chinese into California, and in smaller numbers into our industrial East, because their labor was needed on railroad and ranch and in factory; Japanese,

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to the farms of California. The Koreans, the Indians, the Filipinos came, and others. All of these groups brought with them the artistic sensitivity of the Far East.

Additional information and photographs are available. Write Wm. D. Boutwell, Director Radio Division, Office of Education, Dept. of Interior, Washington.

REVIEWS

EXPERIENCE AND EDUCATION

By John Dewey. Macmillan.

There is an all too common tendency to think about education in terms of some ism. To think about education in such a way is to run the risk of being unconsciously controlled by the principles against which the particular ism is a reaction. "Education must be thought about in terms of itself rather than in terms of some ism about it, even progressivism." John Dewey issues this significant warning in his latest book, *Experience and Education.*

The admonition is undoubtedly prompted by the extreme attitudes and practices adopted by both essentialists and progressivists. Each group appears to reflect and act in term of extreme opposites. This *either-or* type of thinking is usually not fruitful. The attempt to integrate divergent points of view is a sounder but more difficult philosophical habit.

The traditional type of school was a social institution distinct in its organization from other social institutions: its relationship to society was remote and artificial. Its aim was the preparation of pupils for their future life, that is, the life outside the school which was recognized to be different in nature from life within the school. The proper subject matter of the school was the static information gathered by past generations. The function of the teacher was to ladle out this cultural heritage, which could be found logically organized in textbooks, to docile, receptive, obedient learners. The teacher was the center of the learning process. In matters of discipline, curriculum materials, and teaching procedure, he was frequently adjudged by his ability to impose his authority upon the group of learners. Moral training consisted in behaving according to previously accepted criteria.

The newer type of school emphasizes the expression and cultivation of each pupil's individuality as opposed to any imposition from above; free activity as opposed to external discipline; learning from experience as opposed to learning from texts and teachers; the acquisition of skills and technics to attain ends which have direct vital appeal as opposed to their acquisition by constant drill unrelated to the purposings of the learner; fruitful living here and now as opposed to preparation for a supposititious future; and acquaintance with a changing civilization as opposed to memoriter familiarity with static materials.

Taken alone, the viewpoints of both the traditional and new education are inadequate; both are necessary. These apparently irreconcilable points of view can be integrated only if each is founded on a sound philosophy of experience. The excessive authoritarianism and reliance on unchanging subject matter of the older education as well as the excessive individualism and lack of organization of the newer education may be remedied only if a valid theory of experience is formulated.

Experience and education are unquestionably related but it is a mistake to identify the two. All experiencing is not educative; some experiencing hinders rather than promotes growth. There was much experiencing in the traditional school, for example, but of the wrong kind.

Dewey's theory of experience centers around two overlapping principles, continuity and interaction. The principle of continuity asserts that every experience affects the nature and quality of ensuing experiences. Those experiences are most educative which promote continuing growth. The educational implications of this principle include the responsibility of teachers to recognize those attitudes and tendencies which promote and those which thwart mental, physical, and emotional growth. The social as well as the physical environment of the learner must be utilized to provide developmental experiences. At every stage of the educative process there must be adequate regard for the future. Provision must be made for subsequent experiences of a richer quality. This is not preparation as traditionally conceived. According to Dewey, "Preparation means that a person gets out of present experience all that there is for him at the time which he has it." Preparation, in this sense, is the thorough utilization of the potentialities of the present.

The principle of interaction holds that any normal experience consists of a combination of internal and objective factors which, united, constitute a situation. Traditional education ignored such internal factors as the learner's needs, capacities, interests, and impulses; the newer education tends to ignore such objective conditions as the physical environment and the social set-up. The principle of interaction recognizes that education is a social process and that the teacher, as the most mature member of the learning group, cannot be excluded as the director of the process. Individual behavior is controlled by the whole social situation; when the teacher exercises authority, in

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cases of necessity, it is as the recognized representative of the entire group. Such expressions of authority may largely be obviated by judicious planning for the creation of situations that provide for social control.

The cardinal failure of the progressive schools has been their lack of provision for the organization of subject matter. There has been too great a reliance upon improvisation. But education does not happen. Neither does it consist in spooning out pre-arranged subject matter. The ideal of education is the progressive organization of subject matter. It is the purpose of this book to correct the misconception that that ideal is not in harmony with experience.

Readers of Dewey will find much in this slim little volume that is a restatement of his previously expressed theories. There is much that is new, however, and it is stated with a refreshing frankness. Dewey's faith in the progressive movement does not blind him to its serious deficiencies. *Experience and Education* is decidedly worthwhile.

FRANCIS GRIFFITH.
James Madison High School.

OFFICIAL BASKETBALL GUIDE FOR WOMEN AND GIRLS

Edited by Wilhelmine E. Meissner. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 80 pp., 25c.

Basketball becomes increasingly popular with girls and women. The very active National Section on Women's Athletics of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation has taken upon itself "to promote sound and diversified programs of athletics which are centered upon the interests and welfare of the participants." It reaches this goal by preparing practical aids in the form of athletic guides.

This new basketball Guide contains very helpful information for all who are interested, the official, the coach, and the player. Particularly appropriate are articles contributed by Dr. Jesse F. Williams and Dorothy Tapley, Dr. Margaret Bell, Mary Stewart, Martha Bugbee, Gelinda Vescolanti, Marguerite Schwartz, Josephine Persicano, and Wilhelmine Meissner. These articles sum up tersely and succinctly the aims and ideals of athletics for girls and women.

Another valuable addition to the Guide is the *Official Playing Rules*. These are printed in detachable form of convenient size and are enclosed in the pocket of the rear cover. A *"Basketball Technique" Chart* for bulletin board use is also enclosed.

This publication is a *must* for all basketball-minded females.

M. DONALD ADOLPH.
Thomas Jefferson High School,
Brooklyn, New York.

EDUCATION FOR AMERICAN LIFE: REPORT OF THE REGENTS' INQUIRY McGRAW HILL, $2.00

In *Education For American Life*, our educational system receives a most intelligent and most thorough overhauling. The sobriety and soundness of this whole inquiry, its breadth of vision and keen insight into the possibilities and limitations of the present set-up insure for it a permanent place in the field. To New York State, it has made a contribution whose importance it would be hard to overestimate. Its firm grasp of the realities of the present and its deep grounding in those principles which underlie the good life and the good society will undoubtedly commend themselves to other educational systems, enmeshed like ours, in conflicting and confusing social and educational forces.

The inquiry is neither wholesale whitewash nor unmitigated excoriation, nor special pleading. It is a simple and unflinching facing of the facts with a view to discovering what is, in education, and what, in all reasonableness, ought to be. The general tenor of the report is that the world has outrun our school system, that life and school, unless we do something about it, grow further apart day by day. And all this, despite the fact that, in many ways, our system has few equals or superiors in the world today.

The causes for this lag are not far to seek, nor have they gone unrecognized this far. They are in brief:

1. The schools have not yet been able to meet the needs of all the children of all the people. Geared to a different age, fundamentally college-preparatory in nature and outlook, they have failed to make adequate qualitative and quantitative provision for the changed and changing school population.

There is a need now for re-making our school system so that the four-fifths who do not go to college will be as well-equipped for the intricate processes of modern living as the one-fifth who do go to college. To this end, we must supply "a broad general education which will give to all alike at least the same minimum essential tools of intercommunication and thinking, the same minimum up-to-date scientific acquaintance of the world in which we live—an appreciation of the culture and standards of our civilization, the beginnings of the ability to work well with others, a common understanding and belief in the democratic process, and the desire to preserve and defend self-government."

2. School work has not been designed to fit boys and girls into a rapidly changing economic world. Lessening employment for youth, changing work patterns, the widening time gap between graduation and employment, technological changes—all these necessitate a revaluation and redirection of vocational guidance so that the pupil may have sufficiently general training to fit him for a variety of cognate occupations.

3. "The school does not suffi-

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ciently recognize the increased difficulties of becoming and of being a good citizen." Education for citizenship is woefully neglected. What is needed today is a citizenry politically and economically literate, alert to national and international problems.

4. The schools have not yet caught up with the advances in the social and physical sciences. Hence, they are turning out pupils who do not grasp, in full, the meaning of science and its effects on contemporary living.

5. The schools have not met the challenge offered by the decaying influence of home and church, by the increased leisure that is rapidly being made available to our pupils.

6. Educational leaders have no "specific, agreed-upon goal." Like a character in one of Stephen Leacock's sketches, they are riding off furiously in all directions.

Briefly, the report notes, this is not what New York State wants of its educational system. The educational objectives of our state demand universal educational opportunity, a democratic system of education, "above all else" the building of character, good teachers, useful and up-to-date education, expansion and integration of an adult education program, home rule and freedom, efficiency and economy in education.

Without being too savage about it, the report is pretty emphatic on this one point. However close we may have come to attaining some of these objectives, in the main, we have not achieved what we might achieve under a system more fully cognizant of its limitations and possibilities, and administered with greater perspicuity than has been our lot to date. The report is scrupulously fair in pointing out how far we have come on our way. With equal candor it notes the cruel disparity between theory and reality.

Chapter III, entitled "A New Educational Program," indicates in some detail and at times, with laudatory bluntness, how we may proceed to a fuller realization of these broad objectives. As is to be expected, many of these specific recommendations are hardly new. They have been stewing in the pedagogical broth for many years. It remained for the present inquiry to precipitate them out. And this has been done with an incisive clarity and a vivid awareness of the pressing pertinence of our problems.

What school administrators are going to do with these vital proposals is another matter, one on which we are not prepared to venture a prophecy. But it is obvious that our whole educational system will become a more potent force for the enlightenment of all its people should these suggestions become translated into action.

A summary of this whole report is hardly possible in the compass of a brief review. Actually, it is almost impossible to condense it very much further than the very capable Dr. Gulick and his staff have already done. There is little or no padding here. It is all meat, no trimmings. Every page swarms with challenging and pointed suggestions. By some quite remarkable chemical change, all this intensely pedagogical material has been rendered into language as lucid and as free from professional cant as we have yet seen. This volume is a "must" for any and all who would pretend to even a nodding acquaintanceship with the gigantic problems of education in our commonwealth. It is a declaration of faith in the essential solidity and dignity of our profession, in the romance and mystery of teaching, in the future of democracy and its institutions as these become living flesh and sinew through enlightened teaching and happy, profitable learning. What if all is not well in what is the best of all present worlds? There is hope and energy, vast and untapped, in this democracy of ours. There is intelligence, courage, and vision. There is freedom to criticize, freedom to destroy and remould our world nearer the heart's desire. It is all here in this report, and more that we haven't mentioned. To us, this is a stirring document, a deep and searching analysis of our present discontent, and a realistic chart for the future. It can all be done with the instruments we have to hand: money, brains, heart, enthusiasm, and vision. Not to read this report is to have missed one of the significant educational experiences of the last decade.

A. H. Lass.

HOMEWORK IN THE NEW YORK CITY ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

By Peter J. Di Napoli. Teachers College, Columbia.

Dr. Di Napoli sets out in the direction of a very interesting goal but he never arrives. His mission: the discovery and evaluation of the relative merits of compulsory and voluntary homework in terms of student interest and achievement. Tricked out in the most modish scientific panoply, the study covers two schools, three different types of neighborhoods, 1200 students in the 5B and 7B. The control group got its education by the old-fashioned hand-out, "you-do-it-or-else" method (compulsory). The experimental group was voluntarily initiated into the learned arcana by topics for home study suggested by the teacher, by projects, supplementary reading, and other familiar procedures. Both groups faced a battery of achievement tests before and after the experiment.

Conclusions? In the 5th grade, the compulsory homework group has the edge on the achievement tests. The 7th grade results are inconclusive, the differences in achievement having little or no statistical significance. Compulsory homework in the 5th grade leads

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to better achievement in spelling, reading, vocabulary, arithmetic problems, literature, history, and geography. So far so good. Now, compulsory homework results in *loss of interest* in arithmetic and English but *a gain in history and geography*. But, voluntary homework also *leads to a loss of interest* in *English*. The differences in student interest in reading, vocabulary, English, literature, and geography are not significant under either method of assigning homework.

From these highly questionable and tenuous data, the author recommends, in an almost weird non sequitur (for a scientific paper), the abolition of compulsory homework and the establishment of a system of voluntary homework. We can't see any rational basis for such recommendation. The compulsory homework group excelled on achievement tests and registered an insignificant loss of interest in subject matter as compared with the voluntary group. Unless student interest or lack of it is to become the sole criterion of pedagogical procedure, this doesn't make sense. And if student interest is not to be the ultimate determinant, it doesn't make sense either.

That the loss of interest, rather strangely distributed and all too subjectively arrived at, may have been due to many factors other than the compulsory or voluntary nature of the assignment seems not to have occurred to the author; or if these did appear to him, seemed inconsequential. Yet, it will take a tall bit of theorizing to reason into triviality such matters as teacher personality, the nature of the work itself, the human animal's perfectly natural desire to shirk any labor which is in any way unpleasant or arduous. A combination of this formidable trinity may have been at the root of the waning interest of the students. The nature of the assignment may have made matters worse. Conjecture? Yes. But so is this whole study even though it is so heavily armored with scientific procedure and terminology. In effect, this thesis turns out paradoxically enough, to be nothing more than a scientific progress to an unscientific conclusion. It seems more like wish-fulfillment than research, illustrating most graphically the oft-noted point that precise instruments alone do not lead us to the truth.

"Too bad" is all we have to say. The questions raised by Dr. Di Napoli needed answering before he began his study. They need even more emphatic answering now that he has completed it.

A. H. L.

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SECONDARY EDUCATION IN GERMANY*

NOTE:

The article that follows is a verbatim translation of the animating philosophy of German secondary education today. As such, we feel it has a more than superficial interest for us in America. Here we can see those forces which are molding the pliable stuff of German youth into the Nazis of tomorrow. Here we can see not only the Weltanschauung of Nazism translated into pedagogy. We can watch the techniques of instruction as well, by which the younger generation is being regimented into what its rulers believe it ought to be.

All the clichés of the National Socialist philosophy may be found incorporated into the very fabric of the educational system. The *Fuehrer prinzip*, national destiny, racial superiority, anti - intellectualism, emphasis on training the will, physical perfection, unquestioning obedience, the inferior status of woman —all these concepts crucial to the Nazi ideology, are made flesh and blood through an instructional program rigorously implemented and permeated in its every fibre with a national philosophy.

There is no need to labor the point that, in its essence, Nazism is the summation of all that we in America abhor. Nor is there anything shockingly new in the statement that the philosophy of Nazism stands in ominous contradiction to all that we hold sacred. Yet this document is pregnant with much meaning for us engaged in making education function in a democratic society. The strong point of the Nazi program, however much we may detest its implications and results, however much we may be revolted at what it does to its pupils, is its profound recognition that only that nation survives whose educational system embodies in dramatic and fervent form the great national ideals of its peoples. This fundamental truth has been exploited with diabolical thoroughness by Nazi leaders. Even a hasty examination of this pronouncement from the ministry of education reveals it to be literally steeped in terminology as well as method, in the Nazi philosophy. Reinforced by extra-curricular agencies which educate the youth with the same fanatical meticulousness, there is only one possible conclusion to the educational process.

What we in America have to learn, and there are signs that we are learning it, is that democracy, besieged on all sides by threatening

*Reprinted in abridged form by permission of the editor of *The Educational Forum* from an article by Michael Demiashkevich, "Secondary Education in Germany" in the November 1938 issue of *The Educational Forum*.

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ideologies, need have no fear of its survival if it turns its efforts more wholeheartedly to its educational systems, making them the instruments through which it can perpetuate itself. What we must recognize is that democratic means do not necessarily lead to a democratic end. What our students must have when they leave our schools is not a merely dim awareness that they are, in some way, members of a democratic community. They must be deeply imbued with a desire to protect and to foster the democratic way of life, because they see in it the only one in which man can walk the earth in dignity. Technically, as educators we have progressed immeasurably in the past few decades. The instruments for mass education in democracy are at hand, fashioned with a loving zealousness and precision. But in our preoccupation with means we have almost forgotten the larger and nobler ends toward which we must move in preserving intact the heritage that is ours by blood and struggle, the heritage that can remain ours only through "eternal vigilance." And that eternal vigilance to us as educators can mean only one thing: the producing of generations of Americans deeply aware of their traditions, keenly conscious of the world in which they live, determined to see that democracy remains to shed its blessings on us and our posterity.

In educational terms, this means that fundamental concepts of democracy must become a living part of each of our pupils. Intellectual apprehension of its values is not enough. The emotions as well must be educated. This does not mean that we are to become demagogues. It does mean that those great reservoirs of human feeling must be harnessed in the interests of democratic living. We dare not do anything less than this. Not merely the trappings of democratic education: free discussion and critical inquiry in our classrooms, socialization of class procedures, respect for the individual student. These are important but meaningless unless deeply impregnated with democratic fervor and idealism. What, would you indoctrinate? If this be indoctrination, make the most of it. If it be indoctrination to turn out pupils fired with a devotion to democracy, then we ought to be proud of being such indoctrinators. The Nazis are proud of their handiwork as they contemplate it in blue-print. Ought we not to be equally ardent in our consecration to something greater, something infinitely nobler—the democratic society and the democratic man?

A. H. Lass.

THE BASIC PHILOSOPHY OF SECONDARY EDUCATION*

School work is a part of the National Socialist system of education. The school's task is to cooperate by the application of the methods at its disposal with other educational agencies of the German people, all having the common goal of forming the National Socialist man.

The demand that the school serve the purposes of German national education does not date from today. This demand has been frequently expressed in the past; in fact, it is found in the Guiding Principles accompanying the ordinance on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, 1925. But the philosophy of national education developed in this later document is, both in substance and with relation to the philosophy of history which inspired that philosophy of education, very different from the National Socialist conception of political education. The authors of the reform of 1925 understood correctly that only an educational ideal common to and binding upon the entire citizenry could restore to the nation the education unity which it had lost. They understood, further, that such an ideal of unity was not to be found in the social confusion and disintegration of the interregnum, and that the contemporary chaos could not produce the leading star to guide the education of the youth. The authors of the Reform of 1925 did not, however, draw from their correct perception the only conclusion possible. Certainly, they recognized the fact that we had lost the unifying symbols grown out of our historical past and that a new spirit could emerge only from the world events and experiences of the time. Yet the authors of the Reform of 1925 refused to regard education as a political problem, that is the problem of how to build a better future. They preferred to seek in the past a firm ground for a unifying education and they believed that German idealism as an educational influence offered not only a firm ground upon which to build for the unity of the German School but that it also furnished a secure foundation for a new national unity. They forgot that the educational idealism of the early nineteenth century rested upon the conception of Man as a being that comes to self-realization rationally, *via* understanding; they overlooked the fact that this conception had become, by the end of the nineteenth century, wholly obsolete.

This error committed by the authors of the Reform of 1925 was, however, less decisive for the ultimate fate of the Reform than was the illusion that spiritual development can give to a nation that which only a great personality, through political action, can wring from fate.

As a result, the Reform was destined to fail in its ultimate purpose, partly because on the way from its first draught to its application, it had become ever more liberal, i. e., philosophically more colorless and neutral, thanks to the

* "This Ordinance on Instruction and Education in the Secondary School comes into force with the beginning of the school year 1938-39 and is binding upon all the secondary schools of Germany."

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influence exercised upon it by political party squabbles and by the criticisms of proponents of various philosophical doctrines. The more significant cause of the failure of the Reform lay, however, in the fact that education as such cannot set up any political goals but itself receives an assignment from a creative political will; no thoroughgoing reorganization of the school is possible except when a nation creates a new political order which, in turn, creates a certain general educational atmosphere and brings to dominion a unified outlook upon life, which, in its turn, suffuses the educational process.

Thus the pedagogical optimism in which the actual education inanity of the interregnum found expression left its impress also on the Reform of 1925. This Reform was, in the last analysis, based upon the belief that a nation can, through a reorganization of its educational system, recover that which the nation has lost in political strength. The authors of the reform expected to offset, in part at least, the national crisis through which civic instruction, which in the end had no binding power on the individual, and through an introduction to German culture which was believed to be able to serve as "the clincher braces of our national structure." In short, they sought to make citizens without recreating the national state.

Despite all its optimism, this education ideal stands under the sign of the same hopelessness and relinquishment which were characteristic of many other undertakings during that period of time. It did not dawn upon the men of that period that from the imperishable substance of our race a new form of German life can arise. Thus, in the end, belief in German idealism as a determining force of life was the cause of the inability to believe in the creative power of the German people. Today, in the light of the unmistakable experiences of our philosophical revolution, one can see clearly that the revival of German idealism was not the return of a proud and self-confident generation to the ultimate sources of its strength, but a flight from the distress and dejection of the period into the eclipsed ideal of a vanished time.

All true education has its roots in life, and life alone can create life.

In asserting the priority of life and action over all educational theories, National Socialism is faithful to the law which governs the development of every great culture. Political action is the foundation of a new order. A new political order as a new binding force is the necessary precondition for a new system of education. The German state of Adolf Hitler has become the determining educational force because the Fuehrer, by creating his state, summed up the political strength of his people in one single political will and in one all-pervading philosophy of life. This it was which made possible a great and meaningful system of education.

All organized education is formed after the image of a given political and social order. The National Socialist system of education is not the outcome of a pedagogical planning but of political struggle and of the laws which govern such a struggle. The Hitler Guard and the Hitler Youth were first created as fighting organizations of the movement which brought National Socialism to victory. Very soon, however, in these fighting units there developed a new form of life, from which grew a new educational principle. It was in these military-political fraternities that was born, through the harsh selective process of the fight, the new social unity of the German people which the Fuehrer was determined to promote. Long before the national Socialist state was in the position to take into its hands the control of education, there arose, apart from the school and other educational agencies, an intimately close system of education of the youth. It implanted and tested out a new attitude toward life—and those qualities of character inscribed on the banner of the National Socialist movement—not through theoretical instruction but through the comradeship of the fight. The young political warriors of the National Socialist fighting units became bearers of a new educational ideal, even before they received from the National Socialist State a definite educational mission. History cannot teach a more striking lesson on the priority of politics over pedagogy, a fact to which the educational optimism of the interregnum was blind.

Naturally, the victory of the National Socialist movement and of the conception of man and citizen which it represents brought to an end the period of educational optimism and gave its own answer to the problem concerning the proper substance of education.

The National Socialist Revolution, being a philosophical revolution, has replaced the artificial conception of what an educated person is with the conception of the real man, that is, a personality shaped by blood and historic fatality. It has substituted for the humanistic educational ideology which dominated German education in recent times a system of education which has grown out of the brotherhood of a real struggle. Only from the spirit of discipline of this struggle can come the proper guidance for the new school which will not cripple but will further the young German's enthusiasm and capacity for devotion. All education which stands outside this National Socialist educational reality is necessarily abstract and alien; even though it give a large place to German culture, it still would remain an edu-

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cation fit not for the true man of the true reality, but for a mere rational being.

The school was not at once subjected to the revolutionary reorganization, not any more than other educational agencies which had their roots in the outlook of the historical yesterday. All such agencies were less immediately touched by the basic educational influences of the new political reality. The reason for this is to be found not alone in the fact that a spirit which dwells in forms is more tenacious and more stubborn than a spirit that dwells in men and that because of this fact the educational institutions for which the ideas of the past times were the inspiring forms, could be changed only slowly, step by step. A much more valid reason for delay of the educational reform lies in the very nature of the school as an educational institution. Because of its very nature, its significance is diminshed at the moment of the advent of a new culture and of a new outlook upon life. In any period of history, the school always rests upon the basic forces of the times, but life is always ahead of the school. The school transmits to pupils the spiritual content of its time, but the growth of the school is controlled by determinant changes in the outlook upon life. The significance of the school increases in the same progression as the new spirit reaches ever higher degrees of crystallization which make it possible to teach the new spirit to pupils.

The National Socialist historical epoch will build a school which will be its true image. We must, however, realize that we are still at the beginning of the new educational structure.

True education spans bridges between the past and the future of a people; it is not a sum total of absorbed knowledge but a living form. The complaint raised in the past by the best element of our nation, that our youth was weakened and overburdened by the mass of historical information and that this educational exaggeration was injurious to the plastic power of life, was well justified. Only he who can shape the future from the present can with impunity turn his attention to the past period. Only he who pursues, determinately, a purpose can find his way through a mass of knowledge. Only he who pursues a goal can seize a beginning. A clear idea of its own mission on the part of a generation is the key that opens the door to the past. Therefore it is correct to say that National Socialism, even though it did not begin its historical march with a well-developed educational ideal in mind, has accomplished an educational feat unknown to history; it has made it possible to build a true education of a whole people on one and the same foundation. Formerly, a false educational conception divided the people into "the educated" and "the uneducated." Today, the belief of a whole nation in its mission, in its own strength, and in its Leader constitutes not only the bond of political unity but also the soil from which will grow a new national education.

The German youth which today goes to our schools has its face turned toward the future; it is animated with a wholesome self-consciousness, with a strong instinct for life activities, and with confidence in its Fuehrer, which embodies its ideal. The realization of its historic mission not only opens the eyes of the youth to the past but also arouses in it the desire to understand the historical context of its own time. Thus a political self-consciousness stimulates eagerness for study. Such are the premises for the work of the new school, unknown to the previous less happy times.

The school of today resolutely turns away from the former educational objective which was propounded under the catchword "general education." The school of today, further, places itself in the service of the educational ideal which recommends that all educational work begin with the body and then envelop the soul, and thus, both in the school and outside the school, educate for unity. In other words, the school strikes its own path, the goal of which is the education of the total man and the man of good character. The path leads beyond the development of mere intellectual capacities. But this doesn't mean a limitation or restriction of schoolwork; it simply means that the school has a special task to perform. All educational agencies have one common goal—the formation of the National Socialist man. Yet each type of educational agency has its peculiar assignment which it must properly understand and carry out if it does not wish to hurt itself. The peculiarity of the school as an educational agency is that it educates through instruction. This is not, of course, to say that it should conceive its task narrowly as that of the training of the mind, or the producing of scholars and "intellectuals." Whoever has really understood that man is a unified personality, and not a trilogy "made up" of body, soul, and mind, will not deny that the training of the mind and the development of the power of comprehension should aim at the whole man and should contribute to bringing his character to ripe formation.

The educational task of the school is not fulfilled by the development of the intellectual capacities of the individual. The school must, through the transmission to the individual of the common natonal cultural heritage, incorporate him in the historical community of his people, as well as enable him, through the transmission of practical information and skills, to dominate life.

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Germany is poor in territory and in mineral resources. Its real national wealth consists of the vigor, trustworthiness, and efficiency of her men and women. Therefore, the duty of the German school is to bring up persons capable, in a true devotion to the people and the Fuehrer, of leading German life and of developing and applying their spiritual energy to the highest possible degree, so that they may be able to solve the problems that may face Germany in their time.

Vast is the extent and complexity of these tasks. It is the first obligation of the national system of education to open to each individual, regardless of his social and economic status, the road which will lead to the best utilization of his energies in that service to the nation for which he is best adapted. In the context of national life, all types of schools have equal importance despite the differences in certain objectives and methods peculiar to each type.

In the construction of the new German educational system, the task of bringing up that element of the young generation which later will be entrusted with the duty of solving the problems of the nation falls to the secondary school. This selected group and the wider mass of the German people are not thereby divided into two opposing camps of the educated and of the uneducated. The difference between the two consists, rather, in the greater degree of responsibility, initiative, resoluteness, and judgment, which will be demanded from this selected group, and which will be in the service of the people like other Germans. Accordingly, the task of the secondary school is to select from all circles of the German people adolescents promising of success in the service of the people under conditions implying higher degrees of responsibility, resoluteness, and judgment, and to develop in them the ability for decision and achievement, so that they can adequately discharge the duties of a physician, judge, military commander, teacher, and the like. The totality of the work of the secondary school stands, then, under the sign of selection and achievement which are not confined to the intellectual gifts of the pupil, but which are aimed at the whole man. This goal promises the unity of secondary education and precludes the splitting of it into arbitrary trends alien to its true task. The secondary school, to be sure, does not ignore the vocational needs of the nation, but it does not train toward any definite vocation. Consequently, secondary education should not strive to equip the graduates with the richest possible supply of specialized information, but rather with the ability later to acquire through independent study at a higher vocational institution of learning all necessary specialized knowledge and skills.

The secondary school, as compared to the elementary school, imparts to its pupils a much deeper and richer knowledge. This is done not because of the erroneous belief, propagated by the old pedagogy, that such is the way of making "an educated person" from the raw material furnished by the "people." Neither is this done solely because of the fact that in modern complex life it is difficult to find the right solution for a far-reaching problem without the help of solid scholarship. The truly decisive consideration is this: No one can undertake on his own responsibility and initiative to solve national problems who, together with the deepest devotion to the people, is not fortified by the knowledge which make it possible for him to look beyond the confines of his nation and to understand better its historical substance and destiny thanks to his knowledge of other nations. Men and women who bear a greater degree of responsibility than the average citizen for the physical and moral well-being of the nation and for national political stability and culture must of course stand in the midst of the people, must live and feel with the people. Yet at the same time, in order that they may discharge their responsibilities towards the people, they must view the people as a whole and recognize the dangers that may menace the nation as a result of its geographical position, its history, and the weakness inherent in the national character.

The basic characteristic of secondary education, which is not always correctly understood, is that the secondary school pursues its educational goal *via* rational knowledge. National Socialism endorses this peculiarity of secondary education because it is in harmony with its own educational philosophy and not because National Socialism is eager to take over the leavings of an intellectualistic epoch. In progression as the pupil not only receives information through instruction but also is led to exercise his power of comprehension, through the analysis of thoughts and events, he will develop his ability for independent, responsible judgment. This ability will be promoted not only through the study of material furnished by the history and life of the German people but also by those of foreign peoples. Analysis of foreign civilizations contributes to the development of the ability to grasp the life problems of one's own nation, because the contact with foreign civilizations leads to the formation of the habit of dispassionate observation, which is indispensible for correct judgment about the problems of one's own country. On the other hand, such analytical knowledge can only then be fruitful when it concerns itself with matters concerning the peoples with which we come in contact through our art or history. In

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this truth lies the ultimate justification of the linguistic insruction in our secondary schools, and also the reason for the reservation of the *Gymnasium* as a separate form of secondary education. The *Gymnasium* will serve the purpose of benefiting the secondary education system with all that the contrast beween the historically distant and the near, which marks our relationship to Hellas and Rome, can yield in the enrichment of experience and the stimulation of thought.

Education through rational information so understood is not to be confused with the informational school of the old style, because, in distinction from the old education, it aims at the whole man. Character is developed by contending with difficulties. The difficulties against which the mind has to struggle in the process of the acquisition of scholarship, the compulsion of logic, and the inexorable law of objectivity—all of these are not bad directors of character. Besides, all real knowledge is not a mere intellectual phenomenon. The content of information not only touches upon the power of comprehension but also deepens the insight, increases the sense of responsibility, fructifies the imagination, and develops obedience, modesty, and spiritual discipline. It follows therefrom that the choice of subject matter of secondary education is of the greatest moment, and that the traditional contrast between formal training and content study has been disposed of.

These considerations lead to some definite conclusions regarding the method of instruction in the secondary school. The acquisition of information should never be made an end in itself as was the case with the doctrine of the so-called "general education." Where the educative process is dominated by the principle of the mere transmission of knowledge, the total result is the contrary of what is sought. The educative process weakens the individual instead of strengthening him; the multifariousness of the subject matter dulls the senses and the liking for knowledge fatigues the mind, lays lame the will power and the power of decision, and produces conceited persons, in substance inimical to true education, and bored weaklings. The repletion of the impressions rushed into him from the outside makes the young person shallow and incapable of collecting himself intellectually and morally.

When, on the other hand, instruction grows out of life, that is, when it is built upon the pupil's environment, on the world of his own experience and imagination, and when a worthwhile application of knowledge is shown to him, then he can accumulate knowledge without falling a victim to scatter-brained immaturity. In a school permeated with such spirit, the pupil will learn willingly, even when the relationship between the subject matter and his own world is not quite close to him. Information acquired in such a close-to-life manner will never be sterile, because it will enliven and enrich the pupil's will power, and phantasy, without encumbering his mind. The assimilation of knowledge is conjugated with passion; the true learning of subject matter is impossible without the participation of will and feeling. The learning capacity of the individual is determined not simply by his intellect, but also by the last-named creative forces. Therefore, all true instruction is also education.

It follows from the close-to-life conception of instruction that girls' education should be organized in accordance with its own laws, instead of being a mere cast taken from the education of boys. The nature-decreed differences between the sexes manifest themselves even in childhood. As a consequence, the education of girls, in order that it may fulfil its responsibilities to the State, and the people, must develop from its own roots.

This means that all instruction for girls in all subjects prescribed by the program of the secondary school for girls and not simply in those relative to home economics and other subjects specifically intended for the education of women must take its inspiration from the world of women, without, however, any exaggerated romanticism and sentimentality. Thus shall be realized the final objective set for all feminine education by the Führer in these words: "The goal of feminine education must be fixed as the education of the future mother."

If instruction should take its point of departure in the concrete, in the outlook and the interests of the pupil, it must not be enslaved by those. Instruction must not proceed only from observation to concept but also from the known to the unknown. "Attractive" instruction and "hard" instruction must be combined in the educative process.

The new secondary school will subject the adolescent to mental discipline; it will not shun the duty of employing compulsion in order to enrich the youthful mind with useful knowledge, and also in order to strengthen it and make it plastic. The new secondary school will, however, be always guided by the thought that not a dead knowledge but an active comprehension and power of achievement constitute the goal of all instruction.

A school is never worth more than the teachers who conduct it. The real reform of secondary education can be realized only by steady, hard work in the classroom. Regulations can only break the path to the realization of this reform. Upon the National Socialist teacher and his effort will depend the success of the secondary school in bringing up men of decision,

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whose interest is the welfare of the people. The new school will only then get a grip on the soul of the young when it is served by men and women who themselves are possessed of the new spirit and of the sense of responibility of their calling. The best educational program is dead matter if it is not animated by the personality of the teacher.

The teacher in the new school is in so much the better place to fulfill his education task, unhampered by the limitations of his subject, since he has in the National Socialist philosophy of life a scale of values which the school did not have prior to 1933. The National Socialist philosophy of life is not a special subject of instruction or a practical exercise but the very foundation of the new school. It brings down the barriers that used to separate one subject matter from another. This makes it possible, freely to organize instruction, giving room to all the desirable cross-references and to concentration. The National Socialist philosophy of life solves all the difficulties which existed with relation to courses of study and time-tables during the epoch of educational pluralism. The new philosophy of life furnishes not primarily a new subject matter but above all a new unified and unifying point of view, a new general educational method, and a new principle for the selection of subject matter.

Only when the principle of a supposed completeness of the subject matter is discarded and replaced with one of utility and when subject matter is selected in accordance with the National Socialist outlook on life can instruction strike for depth and discharge the educational duties which fall to it.

The subject matter specified in the detailed regulations must be learned thoroughly. Instruction must go as deeply into the subject as the age and preparation of the pupils permit. Whenever the average achievement of a class makes it possible, the course of study should be enlarged. To be sure, the teaching process must be organized in accordance with the psychology of the adolescent and must proceed from observation to comprehension, from the concrete to the abstract. On the other hand, superficiality, a lack of thoroughness, and coddling are the worst enemies of true education.

The basic principle of instruction shall be that of planned and systematic activity, for which the teacher shall set the goal and during which he shall firmly hold leadership and guidance in his hands. All instruction which promotes the pupil's own effort and stimulates his thinking and judgment is instruction through activity. It shall be conducted partly through class discussion, partly through the teacher's lectures, and partly through the properly prepared, organized, and summarized work of study groups; also through well-planned assignments for homework.

The principle of instruction through activity must not be permitted to degenerate into irresponsible quibbling and talking at random; it must not be permitted fruitlessly to sink into an argumentative exchange of opinions. It must have its goal in an experience, a valuation, and a decision. The teacher is responsible for this. Adequate allowance must be made for instructional interrogation and dialogue, as well as for the teacher's lecture. Only then will it be possible to arouse in the adolescent, through self-activity, the joy of work and to strengthen his powers, while guiding his progress from a higher watch-tower.

Important as it is to strengthen the pupil's memory and to stamp upon it the indispensable information, it is necessary to bear in mind that mere mechanical retention of poorly comprehended subject matter fails to achieve the purpose of strengthening memory, while retention is naturally accomplished through the method of self-activity.

Through a proper combination of the various methods of study, the school should take care that the adolescent does not lose his natural freshness and his urge for knowledge; that, as a result of excessive drill, he does not suffer from passivity and an atrophy of the power of independent judgment. On the other hand, he should not be left to dissipate his valuable powers in a vacillating and shiftless unlimited freedom.

The close-to-life attitude of our ambitious youths recommends instruction characterized by both strict organization and lively progression. The confusing multiplicity of insignificant details, the unnecessary spreading out of instruction, the squandering of time, would cripple the adolescent's eagerness for work. Not less injurious is the organization of the learning process which is characterized by minute interrogation and false tutelage. The result of such an organization of the learning process is the loss of keenness, self-confidence, and the joy of achievement on the part of the pupil. All independent processes of thought must be respected. Spontaneous growth and skillful guidance are the mutually complementary methods of all properly-organized education.

The school should carry on its work insofar as possible through class instruction. Yet, homework as a supplement to classwork should not be neglected. Home assignments should serve the twofold purpose of preparation for classwork and of fixation of its results. Homework should be directly connected with classwork; it should be reasonably limited and conscientiously examined.

Indispensable for the habit of collecting one's thoughts and for

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self-testing on the part of teachers and pupils are written exercises (class and home written work). These exercises should grow out of classwork and therefore should not demand additional homework by way of preparation. Short written exercises should aim at the fixation of the results of classwork. Written exercises for the purpose of tests toward graduation and promotion are abolished. In general, written exercises shall not be used as the principal data for the appraisal of the total achievement of the pupil. Home written exercises should serve the purpose of equipping the students, *via* writing, with knowledge and skills that will be useful to them in later life. The correction and appraisal of written exercises should be conducted in the spirit of constructive criticism of just recognition of achievement, both being directed toward the promotion of the pupil's growth and the stimulation of his interest in work.

The correction of written exercises by the pupils themselves can be valuable only when it contributes to the removal of the sources of their errors and to real progress in their work.

In the scientific subjects for which no regular written exercises are prescribed by regulations, at least once a year a one-hour or a two-hour written exercise in class should be arranged in classes from the fifth form on. The purpose of such exercises should be not to serve as a device for either repetition or testing, but to afford the pupil an opportunity for an independent summary of the knowledge he has acquired. Side by side with the correctness of content, such exercises should aim at the clarity of organization and of good style.

More comprehensive written works may be submitted by the pupils who have special gifts and the inclination for deeper independent research. Such works can be considered as a datum for the appraisal of a pupil's total achievement only when they are really passable, at the least.

The appraisal of a pupil's total achievement shall be based upon the degree and success of his coöperation in the instructional work. Requirements exacted from the pupils must not exceed the level indicated in the detailed regulations. Excessive requirements whether in the individual subjects or in the totality of the work are to be avoided as not only injurious to health, but also as leading often to the employment of learning aids of an undesirable and ineffectual nature. The school must not give cause to dishonest practices of any kind. Honest work, frankness, and straightforwardness in the relationship between teachers and pupils should be the basic principle of school life. The adolescents' spirit of straight play and good fellowship will prove an educational factor of the greatest significance when teachers and pupils are bound together in the sentiment of real comradeship.

In all instructional work, clear and correct German, oral and written, must be constantly cultivated.

Order and neatness in every kind of work, as well as a neat hand, are the expression of the sound general attitude of the pupil, and therefore must be valued

Although the success of any educational work depends upon the exemplary demeanor and work of the teacher and upon his belief in youth, in fact upon his own youthful spirit, this success is conditioned not in a lesser degree upon the sound attitude, the will for education, and the disciplined deportment of the pupil.

SOCIAL PRESSURES AND EDITORIAL POLICY*

I am asked to comment, from the standpoint of an editor of a classroom magazine, on the social pressures of one kind or another which bear upon the formulation of editorial policy and forces which influence the content and direction of its product.

It will not be necessary, I am sure, to enter upon a prolonged discussion of the objectives of a valid classroom magazine in a democratic educational system. We can avoid any arguments on the vexatious and threadbare theme of "indoctrination." I believe we should find little difficulty in agreeing upon this platform: that a magazine which aspires to find a useful place in the social studies curriculum must present a lively and interesting picture of the whole gamut of problems, movements, and forces, whether social, economic, political, scientific, or cultural, which make up the changing pattern of the contemporary world; that the bed-rock of this summary should consist of all the relevant, measurable, and verifiable facts that can be adduced; that these should be approached, in so far as possible, with the balance and objectivity of the historical scholar; that it should provide the background material essential to establish in the mind of the student the relationships between the experience of the past, the events of the present, and the potentialities of the future; that it should stimulate the habits of critical and independent thinking and discussion about these problems on the part of the students, and of personal, first-hand participation in the life of the community; and finally, that all this should be couched in an envelope of language and organized structural devices within the

* Address delivered to the Association of Teachers of History in the City of New York, Herald-Tribune Auditorium, December 17, 1938.

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comprehension, interests, and needs of adolescent young people.

To accomplish this, I am sure we should all agree that so-called controversial issues cannot be avoided, and that it would be undesirable to avoid them if we could, for they are the lifeblood and essential condition of democratic progress, as opposed to the sterility of totalitarian states. That the presentation of such issues is relative to the minds and backgrounds of the consumer must be obvious. What is one man's beefsteak is another man's propaganda. And where facts end, opinion and emotion begin. Opinions are a legitimate part of controversial material, provided they are presented as such, and provided the opinions of all substantial groups concerned are given a fair hearing. To those who have throughout their lifetime, in the narrow mental climate with which they are familiar, heard only one doctrine, such a rounded presentation is propagandistic. But to the philosophic mind, it is only the redress of a long-standing imbalance which is needed to introduce students to a liberal education in the basic sense of that term.

Assuming, then, that a classroom magazine is making a conscientious effort to meet these specifications, what are the exterior influences that may pull or push it away from its intended aim? They may be, of course, of many kinds, and may come, in my experience, from at least seven different types of sources:

- from the teachers themselves
- from school administrators
- from boards of education
- from parents and citizens in general
- from special interest groups of a religious, racial, business, or political nature
- from patriotic and civic societies, and very rarely, from legislative or governmental bodies

Examples of such pressures exercised by either individuals or groups with special interests are not hard to find. Fundamentalist Protestants object to the mention of evolution, to doubts of the historicity of the Bible or to any questioning of evangelical and theistic dogma. Moral reformers of varied stripes pounce upon suggestions of intemperance, profanity, or the slightest unconventionality in regard to sex. Negroes complain of what they deem caricatures of their race, or the use of terms that convey opprobrium. The Jews may see unintended slights in picture or story. Anti-Semites call names at any protester against Jewish persecution. The Catholics are vocal on the presentation of the Spanish Civil War, the Mexican question, the Youth Congress, the Communist Party or any United Front organization, child labor, birth control, and films that are not recommended by the Legion of Decency. Business men object to discussion of economic problems, of labor, or the New Deal which tends allegedly in "communistic" directions. That label has become, of course, the whipping boy for every conceivable deviation from conservatism and often has little or no political significance. But the liberal editor will be accused by extremists from both the Right and the Left: the one for "communistic" preoccupation with any problems of social welfare; the other for allowing freedom of speech to Nazis and Fascists. As a result, a magazine which upholds the principles of the Bill of Rights is often in hot water with a public that is illiterate in the fundamentals of Americanism.

The professional champions of 100% Americanism are organized in numerous bodies of varying dignity. If some of them resent being grouped together, they have only themselves to blame for policies which are frankly reactionary and opposed to all genuine academic freedom. Specifically, the American Legion, through its Americanism Commission, the Daughters of the American Revolution, and the Invisible Empire of the Knights of the Ku Klux Klan, in attempting to track down what they allege to be subversive influences in the schools, have attacked classroom publications of high standing. I pass over the mass of smaller, irresponsible self-appointed groups of fascist tendencies, which are often found associated with such witch-hunts, and which in at least one case, to our knowledge, proved to be nothing but the private money-raising racket of two unscrupulous promoters. Such organizations subsist, of course, on the gullibility of the public and the financial support of Red-fearing and labor-hating business men. But to trace their motivation to any particular organized group of public utilities, bankers, or manufacturers is manifestly impossible, and I do not wish to be construed as implying such a connection.

Attempts to punish or control the editorial policies of magazines may express themselves in the following ways: First, letters of complaint against published material that has given offense, coupled with demands for retraction or with veiled threats; second, withdrawal of patronage through the cancellation or non-renewal of subscriptions by individual teachers or superintendents; third, removal from lists of publications approved for requisition by teachers, through formal action by school boards or supervisory committees. *Scholastic* has been subjected to three actions of this nature, in widely separated places, but all somewhat interrelated in the animus and source of the alleged criticisms. In each of these cases, upon a comprehensive face-to-face presentation of the facts to the boards in question, the bodies have reversed themselves and voted to rescind their previous action.

Such methods operate, of course,

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to reduce circulation and thus to weaken the economic support of a magazine. Whether or not progressive schools and teachers in liberal communities which may be attracted to a magazine because of sympathy with its impartial policies tend to offset losses from repressive influences is a question impossible to answer. Perhaps they even up in the long run, but the progressives are less thoroughly organized and less effective in counteracting repression.

One other kind of economic pressure which is often assumed by the layman to be a commonplace of journalism is that of advertisers. Cancellation or withholding of advertising, could, of course, be a serious handicap to a publication that depended largely upon advertising revenues. Most school magazines which carry advertising, however, reverse the general experience of adult commercial magazines; i. e., they derive the bulk of their income from circulation and a minor proportion from advertising; whereas with a magazine such as the *Saturday Evening Post,* the receipts from circulation barely cover the cost of the paper alone.

Instances of pressure through advertising, however, are exceedingly rare. I have known of a case where a disgruntled publisher deliberately circulated to national advertisers misinformation about a successful competitor which had the effect of losing some advertising contracts for the latter. Such tactics can be met by legal action if damages are provable. In so far as the executives of large corporations and advertising agencies are afflicted with the same credulity regarding subversive activities as school boards and others controlling subscriptions, they can, of course, be influenced by such propaganda, and can swing advertising appropriations as their sympathies dictate. But this, as I have said, is rare.

The types of material objected to are of an amazing variety and often of the most ludicrous and trivial nature. The proverbial trick of lifting a phrase or sentence from its context to prove the most horrendous charges or even its diametric opposite is unfortunately not confined to political orators. We have been raked over the coals for a woman smoking a cigarette or a triangle murder in literature written by authors of such distinction as H. G. Wells, Pearl Buck, Aldous Huxley, Julia Peterkin, Sinclair Lewis, or Algernon Blackwood. We have been accused of tearing down the Constitution because a report of the Supreme Court controversy indicated that the Court's majority upheld New Deal laws more frequently after the President's court bill was introduced than before. We have been charged with free love, atheism, and communism because we published in a special issue on crime a chapter from a well-known sociological study of the boy and girl vagabondage so prevalent in America during the depression. It is clear that editors of classroom magazines must use extraordinary discretion in the selection and editing of material. But such complaints are, after all, exceptional. They seldom deal with any genuinely significant or major problem. And as only the man biting the dog creates news, so the normally clear record of the vast majority of satisfied users attracts no attention.

Let us attempt briefly to generalize. Is there a concerted conspiracy to discipline socially-minded magazines? No. At worst, sporadic instances of repression by various self-appointed or unethical groups on the lunatic fringe, with comparatively little evidence of organized coöperation. Most censorship of publications in the schools is exercised by the mass inertia of conservative public opinion, seldom articulate, but tending to push the curriculum, the teaching methods and materials of the schools in the direction of an alleged norm of Americanism. In general, this norm might be described as the American middle-class credo outlined by Lynd in *Middletown in Transition.* Any expression of deviation from it, unless clearly condemned or neutralized by other virtues, will incur opposition and perhaps even persecution.

In this respect, the classroom magazine faces the same problem that all publicists must: of meeting and conciliating the tastes and prejudices of the public to which it aims to appeal. But with this distinction, the general or entertainment magazine appeals to the voluntary suffrage of the reading public, and no one has to read it who doesn't want to, just as the radio listener can switch off the dial of a program he doesn't approve. Therefore, it builds up its clientele among those who like its editorial policy, while special groups which it may displease gravitate to other media.

The classroom magazine, however, must find its main support in the public schools, which, by the nature of our democratic and legal system, include a cross-section of all classes, races, sects, sections, and groups. It is furthermore used, even under the best circumstances, with some element of compulsion, i. e., it is a supplementary textbook which is usually ordered at the teacher's behest, paid for by the student, and studied and recited on by assignment, willy-nilly. This condition is, of course, tempered by the facts that many teachers allow their students the choice of a magazine they prefer, that frequently the school does not require all to purchase because of school board rules or the depressed economic condition of the community, and that it is often used chiefly for voluntary or collateral reading, without fixed recitations.

As a result, however, the classroom magazine is peculiarly subject to the approval of the commu-

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nity as a whole, and must satisfy the mores of the dominating adult groups of that community. The theory might might be crudely expressed, I presume, as it was in the Dayton evolution trial, that in publicly supported schools the taxpayers and not the educational experts, have the right to determine what shall be taught in these schools and what materials shall be purchased. I need not comment on the consequences and implications of this theory for the development of a progressive professional philosophy of education.

KENNETH M. GOULD.
Managing Editor *Scholastic*.

STUDYING FROM THE SUNDAY NEW YORK TIMES*

James Monroe High School adopted the Sunday issue of *The New York Times* of February 27 as the basis of a departmental project for a week's lessons in English classes throughout the school. The English department circularized its own teachers and those of the Social Studies department in both main building and annexes, to insure complete coöperation and uniformity of purpose and effort in the use of the newspaper. A quotation from the circular to English teachers follows:

ENGLISH DEPARTMENT
James Monroe High School

To all English teachers:

During the week of February 28, all classes that are sufficiently mature to profit from the study of an issue of the Sunday *Times* will have an opportunity to do so. In general, classes in the third and fourth year will be included . . .

The study of the Sunday Times can entail any or all of the following:

1. Cultural guidance and enrichment through use of
   a. The Book Review Section
   b. The Magazine Section
   c. The Theatre, Movie, Art, Music and Radio Section
   d. The Travel Section
   e. The Science Section
   f. The Hobbies Section
2. General knowledge enrichment through use of
   a. The News of the Week in Review
   b. The General News Section
   c. Articles by Special Correspondents
   d. The School News Section
   e. The Magazine Section
   f. The Science Section
   g. The Sports Section
3. Oral and written composition as well as précis writing based on material gathered as indicated above, and through use of
   a. The Editorial Section
   b. Letters to the Editor
   c. Topics of The Times

The techniques here may include training in "listening," the expression of material read in class and evaluated through individual experience and imagination.

GENERAL AIMS

A summary of the reports submitted by teachers after the unit of lessons of the week had been completed showed the following general aims in teaching from the Sunday edition of the New York Times:

1. To acquaint pupils with a quality Sunday newspaper.
2. To acquaint them specifically with the cultural features of such a newspaper—its special sections on books, travel, art, theatre, music and education, and the Magazine Section.
3. To provide them with a dependable, undistorted service for daily news and for the week in review.
4. To provoke active interest on the part of students in discussion of current event problems.
5. To motivate certain points in the course of study, précis and letter writing, book reviewing, movie or play criticism, oral recitations.

A list was compiled of the topics used in this series of lessons. This list is given below with a number indicating how many of the teachers who used *The New York Times* taught a lesson on any one topic. Each teacher was left absolutely to his own devices in preparing lessons, except for the general suggestions in the department circular quoted above.

Exploratory introductory lesson on the divisions and purposes of the sections	17
Current events, social problems, points of view	17
Oral reports on specific interests	15
Book reviews: analysis and composition	13
Suggestions of cultural activities	8
Précis writing	7
Comparison of The Times with other newspapers	7
Editorials for precis work and paragraph study	6
Discussion of plays	5
Letter writing: letter to editor, answer to want ad	5
Cartoons	4
Reviews of plays and motion pictures	3
Writing of essays based on current affairs	3
Short stories developed from news stories	2
Criticism of advertisements	2
Debates and debating references	2
Function of the press	2
Poetry and social problems	2
Special correspondents	1

In presenting special lessons from this variety of topics, it has been found convenient to divide the types of lessons into three groups: those on general news material, those on sections dealing with music, art, drama and books, and those lessons which are designed to fulfill some part of the general curriculum, such as letter or precis writing, and general composition work.

EXPLORATORY LESSON

In almost every case it was found necessary to teach an introductory exploratory lesson in order to acquaint the class with the divi-

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sion of the newspaper into sections and familiarize it with the purposes and functions of the different sections. This was done by simply using the first class period in which the pupils received their papers for turning through the sections from the first to the last, discarding any for which there would be no need or opportunity. The sections which have a current news value may be separated for immediate use from those which have a more lasting validity, the Magazine, the Book Review, the Travel and the Drama, Music and Art Sections. Some teachers have found that the latter sections may be put aside and used for some weeks afterward as the basis for further lessons.

As part of the introductory lesson one class formulated a statement of the functions and purposes of any newspaper, quoted below:

1. To provide information and news of a current nature on
   - World affairs
   - National affairs
   - Local affairs
   - Business
   - Finance
   - Sports
2. To express and influence public opinion through
   - Editorials
   - Cartoons
   - Topics of the Times
   - Signed feature articles
3. To provide material for readers' cultural interests and pursuits by means of reviews, articles and announcements on
   - Books
   - Music
   - Drama
   - Art
   - Amusements
   - Hobbies
   - Radio
   - Education

A statement such as this can be developed as part of a socialized recitation, and helps younger children to understand the newspaper as a vital force in the modern world.

LESSONS BASED ON GENERAL NEWS

I. A lesson on the general news sections, adaptable to a class of any term and especially to one in which oral work is emphasized, is a prepared oral recitation on any topic of interest to the student, selected from the first and second news sections or the News of the Week in Review. Emphasis in the preparation can be placed upon an original commentary by the student rather than a summary of an article. Discussion of points presented by the students in their criticism may be successfully socialized because all topics of current interest and news are so closely related. Thus a valuable lesson in correlation of information may be taught with complete student activity. Requiring not merely summary but comment and criticism eliminates from the recitation selection by many of the class of three or four short articles such as "Swing Not to Be Played in St. Patrick's Day Parade" or "Gas Station Attendant Wins $3000 Lottery."

An oral recitation such as that discussed above may very well be assigned after the introductory lesson has presented the different news sections to the class.

II. Training in writing the long composition may be combined with the gathering of material from various sources. The general news, editorials, News of the Week and Magazine sections in The New York Times prove very valuable source material for essays on current topics such as flood control, legislation for farmers, housing programs, threats to world peace or programs for keeping the peace.

III. The news sections as one group, the arts and travel sections as another were used by one teacher for reading and class study for discovery of the most important news events in selected fields (biggest news in science, politics, education, etc.) and for the selection of important names of persons and institutions. For example, from the general news sections, the class identified such names as Hirota, the Japanese Diet, Geneva, the Reichstag, Anthony Eden and Schuschnigg. From the theatre and picture sections the class identified such names as "Haiti," "The Adventures of Chico," Mercury Productions, Toscanini, Verdi, Lauritz Melchior. Names were supplied by the teachers and pupils. Indentifications were based on information secured from the Sunday Times and from other sources. The aims of this procedure were to extend the pupils' horizons and to provide a basis for further reading in which the presence of strange names would constitute less of a problem. This sort of lesson is valuable with a third year class, which has less acquaintance with current figures and movements. It does not require preparation and may be used for a rapid survey or objective lesson.

IV. Debating is a part of high school work usually provided for in the third year. *The New York Times,* especially in the Sunday edition, provides manifold resources for debating reference work in the preparation of briefs, with the added advantage of being available to an entire class at once. By using news articles, editorials and analytical articles in the Sunday edition, or by following news developments in the daily paper, the student has a reliable source of evidence in gathering material for argumentation on current affairs.

V. The humorous and shrewd commentary of the cartoons reprinted in the Review of the Week from leading newspapers of our own and foreign cities provides opportunity for short class discus-

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sion on the importance of such comment in relation to the more serious written work, the place of satire and humor as a constructive or destructive force. Any talented members of a class may be encouraged to try their hand in this field, continuing their efforts in a weekly class bulletin if possible.

LESSONS FOR CULTURAL GUIDANCE

I. The Drama, Music and Art Section contains such a variety of material that it was found valuable for many different reasons. An outstandingly successful lesson taught through this section was one which gave practice in writing a lengthy, friendly letter. At the same time it acquainted the pupil with all the opportunities for entertainment and enjoyment of beauty which this city provides.

The letter assignment followed a week's study of the general parts of the paper. On the two days preceding the assignment, short talks were given in class by students acquainted with current stage, screen and musical events, thereby correlating material from other sources with the section of the paper actually being studied. In this connection, the issue used was a particularly adaptable one, since the Magazine Section contained an article on the "bare stage" productions of the season.

The students were assigned the long letter as work to cover two weeks, during which time they continued with regular class work in other parts of the curriculum. This letter was to be written inviting an out-of-town relative or friend to a week of diversion in New York. The entertainment section of *The New York Times* was used as a basis for reference and plans were to be outlined in the letter which would cover each day in the two weeks to be spent in New York. This assignment used in seventh and eighth term classes gave both teacher and pupil a great deal of pleasure. One exceptionally interesting treatment of the assignment by an eighth term girl is included here.

820 Suburban Place
Bronx Borough
New York, N. Y.
February 26, 1938

My Dear Leslie,

I'm not going to tell you at great length how sorry I am for what has happened to you. You know, I sincerely hope, how your great loss affects me, who loves you above all humanity. But, my dearest, won't you come back to New York where I can see and help you. The wastes of Arizona may "soothe a turbulent spirit" but not one like yours. You expand amidst bright lights and splendor and conversation. Nowhere are you so glamorous—or so happy—as among a group of intelligent people whom you admire.

Darling, I've planned so much for you. So many enchanting hours. I'm not being callous when I say nothing will comfort you more than a return to the whirl that used to be your life. Don't permit one incident to veer you from the course you have pursued so long and so happily! Let me entertain you for two weeks and then make your choice. Leslie dear, my happiness, my life, is in the same precarious position yours is—remember that when you decide.—C'est tout.

Now on to those two weeks. Picasso and Cezanne have left the galleries, but there are several interesting exhibits going on. The Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts is showing a James Chapin called "Doris." It's a portrait, but the woman has the most unusual face I've seen in a long time. I've been three times and I never get beyond "Doris." You must see her and help me solve the mystery of what she is thinking.

They do have some Renoir at the Durand-Ruel, but only his landscapes. You never cared particularly about that phase of his work, but it might make an enjoyable afternoon. The Midtown is showing William C. Palmer and the A. C. A. is exhibiting Evergood. It is strange that I should never have seen anything of his. I've heard that his satire is admirable.

As to the dance. Shan-Kar is here now. That Hindu fascinated me. We will go to see him again, won't we? Then, there are several "musts." Ted Shawn, who is excellent, the Jooss Ballet and, for contrast, the American Negro Ballet. I haven't included the Ballet Russe because it goes without saying that we'll be there. They're going to perform "Coq d'Or" next Sunday.

From the ballet one goes naturally to music. There is so much, we need months. Rubinstein is to give his last piano recital of the season, for which I've already secured tickets. I haven't heard him yet this year, and we shan't miss this. Karl Ulrich Schnabel will be at Town Hall along with Emanuel List and Dalies Frantz and we must hear all three. Barbirolli and the Philharmonic are going to do Till Eulenspiegel, the Brandenburg Concerto No. Three and the Second Symphony of Brahms. Zimbalist and Rose Pauly are going to be the soloists. You've never heard her, have you? I think you'll enjoy her voice.

Naturally, we must see "Tristan." I haven't seen it since Germany. That's a long time. It'll be given this Friday and we mustn't miss it. I've heard that Flagstad is retiring next season and I want very much to hear her sing Isolde. She'll also be on the radio, and I imagine she'll sing from the "Ring" then.

We won't neglect the theatres, and there you can have your choice. The Lunts are doing "Amphitryon 38," which I know you'd like. The old standbys, "The Women" and "Tobacco Road," are still going strong. "Golden Boy," "Of Mice and Men," "The Cradle Will Rock," "Accent on Youth," "A Doll's House," "Once Is Enough," "Susan and God" and "Father Malachy's Miracle" are all waiting to be seen. Two things that you must see are "Julius Caesar" and ". . . one-third of a nation . . ." I left both full of the desire to reform. Seeing them is like sitting on a keg of dynamite. They certainly give one a jolt. After you're shaken up a bit, however, we can let "I'd Rather Be Right," "Pins and Needles" or "Three Waltzes" balance us correctly again.

And all those parts of New York which we got to know so well after we were married. We'll revisit them. Those little places where we used to get Hungarian goulash and eat on a checkered tablecloth. That bench in the park overlooking the lake. Even that apartment which still belongs to us. They're all waiting for us. They have been for almost a year, for I wouldn't go alone.

Leslie, my darling, there is so much to see, there are so many things to do, multitudes of people to know—and a lifetime is so short. Life itself is a nebulous substance. You hold it, it's your most precious possession and yet when it slips through your fingers, you make no move to keep it. Leslie, you used to think with me that not to LIVE when one was alive was enough to doom one to damnation. Have the sands of Arizona buried that ideal, too? From the bottom of my heart comes the hope that it is not so.

With the greatest of love,
B.

This intensive study of the Amusement Section of the New York Times is consistent with efforts of our teachers at all times to encourage students to take advantage of the many free concerts, art and photography exhibits which take place in New York. Since this section of the newspaper provides a guide for these activities, students should become familiar with it and what it offers.

II. The critical articles on stage, screen and music are stimulating reading in themselves and, of course, are valuable in helping students to form standards and

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opinions. They may be interested in comparing the reviews in the daily papers, printed immediately on first seeing a new production, with the more reflective summary articles which appear in this section on Sunday. The Sunday articles provide an example of mature consideration, in which the writer uses the supplementary material at his disposal to give more depth and justification to his criticism. Students can never be urged often enough to make use of their own experience and background when writing.

III. Besides the critical articles this section contains informative articles which may be used as a point of departure in starting class or individual study of outside material. One example may be cited: the many articles which have appeared during the last two years on The Cloisters of the Metropolitan Museum of Art. There have been articles which dealt with the Cloisters from the point of view of the past, the present and the future, many photographs, and many articles about George Grey Barnard, who was responsible for the exhibit before this collection became the property of the Museum. Such a topic provides a long, historic view of something older than our own country.

IV. The Book Review served in two capacities, a guide to reading and a guide to writing. Its function as a guide to reading was explained in class when the section was reached in the general introductory lesson. The section was then put aside until it was used to help students in writing their book reports.

Analyzing the reviews and from that analysis finding those essential points which the students could build into their own work proved to be an effective and valuable lesson. The lesson took three days, including an introductory class period in which the section was discussed as a whole.

1. On the day of the introductory lesson on the Book Review, each pupil brought his copy with him. The section was covered page by page, with the teacher commenting on authors of books or of reviews, pointing out the illustrations, the headlines and the advertisements. The "Queries and Answers" and "Book Exchange" features were read and discussed. The assignment for the next day was to look through the section and read carefully two or three articles and reviews which the student thought would be interesting.

2. For the second assignment, after a little further preparation in class, the pupil was able to point out in one review, to be clipped and pasted in his notebook, the items which a professional reviewer includes in his report on a book. The class preparation when making this assignment consisted of giving the pupils a head start by listing on the board as many points as they were able to find in their first glance at the reviews.

3. The third day's work was entirely socialized. The student findings were put on the board. Some of the more enterprising found between fifteen and twenty items; almost all had ten or twelve. These included the obvious ones, title, author, publisher, pages, price, and place of publication—as well as those taken from the substance of the article, summary of story, of situation, of setting, character description and criticism, comparison of author with other authors and of book with other books, and criticism of book as a whole.

Among these analytical findings the students then distinguished between those which they were likely to need in their own book reviewing for class and those which belonged strictly to the professional reviewer. The proportion of most reviews which is devoted to the retelling of the story was noted, as well as those other items which made up the rest of the review. When a list of six or eight items such as those mentioned above was condensed from the original long list supplied by the class, students were able to work from an outline including these when they prepared a book report the following week.

LESSONS BASED ON CURRICULUM

I. Part of the eighth term curriculum includes the study of modern poetry. Two teachers at Monroe found ways to correlate this study with the study of the modern metropolitan newspaper. The classes use Louis Untermeyer's collection of *Modern British and American Poetry* as well as Palgrave's *Golden Treasury,* and in one case had just read certain social problem poems like Untermeyer's "Caliban of the Coal Mines" and Margaret Widdemer's "Factories." They were asked to consider the truth or falsity of the poet's message in each of the poems when considered in its relation to current affairs. For example, the News of the Week Section contained a cartoon representing a portrait of Europe today which was captioned by the opening lines of Edwin Markham's "The Man With the Hoe." Oral reports were made on single poems in connection with current affairs. This procedure made the poems themselves more vital and at the same time necessitated a careful consideration of current events.

II. One teacher who wished to use the newspaper as living textbook in school subjects introduced to her class the poem entitled "A Newspaper," by Stephen Crane to determine in what respects it was true and to begin to frame ideals and standards by which journalism may be judged. In addition to the newspaper ordinarily read

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by the students, their motion picture and reading experience was included in this discussion.

III. Valuable oral composition work may be done in a school which has a camera club or where enthusiasm for photography is evident. Almost every class contains at least one amateur photographer. Using the rotogravure picture section, this nucleus of photographers can provide the rest of the class with some instructive and interesting short talks on picture composition, news value in pictures, spot news pictures, personality shots, candid camera photography, and other points of news photography. In addition to the rotogravure section the photographs in the news sections, advertisements, magazine, book review and theatre sections can be used. Most of the class will also be familiar with news photography through picture magazines and through motion picture news reels. The class may be interested in attending a photography exhibit if there is one at the time. The talks may be planned with this in mind.

IV. For written composition topics for almost any grade, one may find the Want Ads, Public Notices, Lost and Found and Room Renting advertisements useful. One teacher who assigned these to her class was rewarded with a large crop of interesting and readable short stories. One in particular was a very interesting reconstruction of the life of a "Forgotten General" based on a missing person advertisement in the Public Notices.

There were stories of little boys with lost dogs, of a famous research scientist who had lost the briefcase for which an advertisement had been printed, of unusual activities carried on through cryptic pieces in the Public Notices. One of these last was the story of a boy in the death cell, in which the atmosphere of tension was created with a great deal of skill. The story was built out of two items which the student related, one in Public Notices, the other a news item.

V. For practice in business letter writing the many advertisements in the Help Wanted columns which must be answered by letter provide a real situation for the student. The framing of a suitable letter in applying for a position is often a very difficult matter for a high school student, one in which he needs exercise as well as guidance.

VI. Letters to the editor provide a focus for discussion of world affairs or of problems in the school. Letters which may be used as models for work on such topics may be found in the Review of the Week Section. They may profitably be compared with the letters published in other newspapers (notably the tabloids) both for originality and value as criticism of the actions of public figures, legislative bodies and of the newspaper itself. Students are interested in the fact that the newspaper will publish letters which sometimes contain severe criticism of its own policies. A few well-written letters may be selected as models and the class may write letters of their own, either to a metropolitan newspaper, to the school paper, or to some other periodical. The older pupils respond to this assignment with more interest than younger ones, and are eager to have their letters appear in the school paper.

Not all the letters to the editor appear in the news section. There are letters in both the theatre and the book review sections. These usually deal with specific aspects of special topics and are not of such general interest as those on current affairs, but they may appeal as reading matter or models to some members of the class.

VII. The letters to the editor printed in the fourth section may serve another purpose. They provide material for precis writing. In addition the editorials, parts of articles in the Magazine or other sections, and the Topics of the Times provide excellent material for this phase of the curriculum work.

SUGGESTED LESSONS FOR A WEEK'S STUDY

When *The New York Times* is introduced into class work, as it was at James Monroe High School, the study may begin with a series of five lessons for the first week and then be supplemented later in the term with continued use of the paper or certain sections of it. A few samples of a week's set of lessons are submitted, in the event that they may prove helpful to teachers using the paper for the first time.

TERM V OR VI (THIRD YEAR)

1. Exploratory lesson, including the general functions of a newspaper as well as the functions of each section.

2. Oral recitations on current topics prepared from news articles with general class discussion. (If the whole class is to take part, either in the prepared recitations or the discussions, this lesson cannot be completed in one day.)

3. Brief study of the news story, feature article, human interest story, editorial and cartoon. Assignment of original written work, based on any of these types of news writing to be written at home or in class.

4. Summary and review of news sections, discussion of pictures and advertisements, comparison of *The New York Times* with other papers read by the students.

5. Class study of the magazine section, reading articles or parts of articles aloud, followed by discussion, with a possibility of introducing scrapbook work on an ex-

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tended project if material is suitable and class interested.

TERM VII OR VIII
(FOURTH YEAR)

1. Exploratory lesson, reviewing the purposes and functions of the newspaper and discussion of freedom of the press. If the class is already familiar with *The New York Times*, continue with specific discussions of news, reading in class articles by special correspondents.

2. Presentation of material used for short talks as possible reference material for long composition. Practice in preparation of an outline.

3. Prepared short talks on current affairs based on a few selected topics, with discussion from the floor. (This may take more than one day.)

4. Summary and reviews of news sections, discussion of pictures and advertisements, comparison of *The New York Times* with other newspapers. This may include consideration of methods of obtaining and presenting news, and discussion of special feature departments and staff writers.

5. Introduction of the theatre and book review sections to be studied in some detail in class.

Part of the effectiveness of using *The New York Times* in classroom work lies in the fact that it is available to every one. Although the newspaper is needed in such large quantities, there is not necessarily any difficulty in obtaining and distributing them on any one day. Part of the circular to English teachers at James Monroe High School is quoted:

"On Monday, February 21, only pupils desiring to purchase copies of the issue of the 27th will give 8 cents to the English teacher in the English classroom. The teacher will place the money received from every separate class in an envelope to be provided for the purpose, seal each envelope after giving the facts called for on its face, and send the envelope directly to the English Office. A receipt will be issued. On Monday, February 28, the copies of the newspaper paid for on the 21st will be ready for delivery to your student representative, who will call for them in the English Office at the beginning of the class period, presenting the receipt previously issued."

Altogether the project of using the Sunday *Times* at James Monroe met with an enthusiastic response on the part of teachers and students and aroused continued interest in the study of the newspaper throughout the term. If this compilation of the results of the individual teacher's work evokes from other educators further interest and suggestions, its purpose will have been fulfilled.

Credit is due the following teachers for the lessons which have been included in this pamphlet:

Letter using the theatre section: Miss Risa Lowie

Names in the news: Miss Anne Rizack

Book review analysis: Mr. Aaron Traister

Modern poetry lessons: Mrs. Theresa L. Morris and Mrs. Lillian K. Jerome

Short stories based on news items, advertisements and Public Notices: Miss Evelyn Keller

Function of the press: Mrs. Lillian K. Jerome.

The author is also greatly indebted to Mr. Frank A. Smerling, chairman of the English Department of James Monroe High School, for his kindness and cooperation.

CAMILLA M. JOSEPH.
James Monroe High School.

ECONOMIC HISTORY IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY*

INTRODUCTION*

The following report, dealing with *Economic History in the Elementary Schools of New York City* is the third in a series of papers devoted to the study of the syllabus and textbooks in the Elementary Schools of New York City. It was originally undertaken by Mr. Ralph B. Guiness of Richmond Hill High School. Because of Mr. Guiness' illness, the report was completed with some abridgement and modification by Mr. Abraham Geduldig, of Haaren High School, Chairman of the Textbook Committee of the History Section of the Association of Social Studies Teachers.

The report was submitted to, and approved by the Executive Board of the History Section. In giving its approval, the Executive Board does not wish its action to be construed either as heralding any particular interpretation of history to the exclusion or detriment of other interpretations, or as desiring to present a belief in the class struggle as the major concern of society and education.

EDWARD N. LEHMAN.
De Witt Clinton High School,
Chairman, Publications Committee,
History Section, Association of
Social Studies Teachers.

A study was made of the Elementary School syllabus in history and of the textbooks, *Story History of America*, Fourth and Fifth Years.[1] The object was to ascertain to what extent the syllabus and the textbooks in question present a realistic account of the economic problems of modern society. It was assumed that the major objectives of social studies: 1. the creation of rich, many-sided personalities, 2. the inculcation of

[1] Theobold, Pugliese and Green, *Story of America*, World Book Company, New York.

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ethical values, 3. the appreciation of democracy, 4. the understanding of the present, and 5. the development of scientific method of thinking,[2] could be achieved only by a content which is in itself accurate and truthful as measured by objective, scientific, historical scholarship.

THE SYLLABUS

Does the use of the biographical and narrative approach necessitate the omission of economic considerations? The syllabus makes little reference to significant economic realities behind such projects as the building of the Erie Canal, railroads, settlements in the West, etc. Very meager provision is made for the teaching of the Industrial Revolution and the problems involved in the relations between labor and capital. Negro slavery is mentioned, but no purpose for its introduction is supplied. Indentured servitude is not included in the syllabus. No provision is made to show how policies of land distribution tended to create a politically free, economically dependent, laboring class in place of the forced, white, indentured and negro slave labor. The syllabus does not show how the land policy helped build up a special land-owning class. While lands were ostensibly granted freely to indentured workers upon their release, quite often conditions prevented their realization.

While the syllabus is quick to tell us how the first explorations and colonizations were made for gold and silver, no other economic motives are mentioned for the grades below 7A. Then, on page 63, we are provided with a statement on the London Company and the Dutch West India Company as agents of settlement. However, there is no description of just what these companies were.

There is no concept throughout the syllabus of the existence of economic class interests behind the colonial governments. When we reach 7B, on page 73, we see references to the House of Burgesses and the New England town meetings as evidences of the spirit of independence and democracy. The special economic interests behind each dominant group are not mentioned. As the name itself indicates, only burgesses were represented in Virginia at that time. Moreover, no place in the syllabus provides for the teaching of the thesis of Ambler,[3] Basset, Lincoln, and others that colonial governments were controlled by the rich sea-coast minority against the interests of the mass of small farmers and frontiersmen of the interior. The syllabus fails to state that after the towns of New England were settled, "democracy" was restricted to the first settlers, or that the land policies in New England were not democratic. The syllabus fails to take cognizance of the capitalistic aspects of: 1. the pre-Revolutionary government,[1] 2. the causes of the Revolution (Alvord-Schlesinger thesis[2]), and 3. the making of the Constitution (Ambler - Madison - Beard - Libby thesis[3]). The economic causes of the Civil War are distorted. The 6A section implies that slavery was the cause (page 45); the 8A chapter states more directly (95-96) that slavery caused the Civil War. More significant economic causes, such as conflicts over the tariff and the Western lands, are not mentioned. The 7A section on Greece and Rome fails to refer to the fact that there existed then the same fundamental economic and political problems, including imperialism, as confront modern man.

The following is cited to indicate the need for revision on the ground of poor proportioning of lessons. In 8A, pages 107-108, only seven periods out of forty are devoted to inventions and the machine age. In 8B, pages 108-109, only four periods are devoted to the teaching of five economic problems. Eleven periods for the eight years on economic history —no wonder the students come to us in high school with such meager economic concepts! Consider the other extreme: for a conventional account of Daniel Boone, seven periods (5B, page 35), conventional account of the Revolution, nineteen periods (5B, page 36), and twelve periods (7B, page 13-6) conventional account of the Constitution, four periods (5B, page 37) and fourteen periods (7B, page 76-9) are suggested.

In conclusion, the syllabus provides for a superficial treatment of American History to the neglect of economic factors and forces. This result is achieved sometimes by omission of important data and sometimes by commission of errors of scholarship.[4]

We cannot expect our boys and girls to leave the elementary schools and come to us in high schools adequately prepared to grapple with the problems of contemporary society when they have been nurtured for eight years on such a diluted diet. We submit that the rich findings of modern scholarship can be presented in accordance with sound pedagogy at the elementary school level and in furtherance of our objectives of developing scientific attitude

[2] A disavowal is made of an economic interpretation of history and a belief in a class struggle as the major concern of society and education.

[3] Ambler, Charles Henry, *George Washington and the West*, University of North Carolina, 1936.

[1] See page 2.

[2] Alvord, Clarence Walworth, *The Mississippi Valley in British Politics*, Cleveland, Clark Co. 1917. Schlesinger, Arthur Meier, *The Colonial Merchants and the American Revolution*, New York, 1917. Col. U. Ph.D. thesis, and *New Viewpoints in American History*, New York, Macmillan, 1922.

[3] Beard, Charles A, *Economic Origins of Jeffersonian Democracy*, etc.

[4] "4. Maryland: refuge for Catholics" (page 64). See Bogart, *Economic History*, 1930: "Motives were not entirely or even primarily religious." The primary motive was economic.

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and a democratic viewpoint.

THE TEXTBOOK

The textbooks uphold the spirit of the syllabus: there is no critical questioning of what has happened and only conventional, superficial accounts are included. Two exceptions are the treatment of Dutch colonization (4A) and the settlement of Virginia (5A). On page 78, it would be inferred from the phraseology, "property held in common," "common storehouse," and "all profits to be divided equally among the colonists," that Jamestown was an experiment in communism and that its failures were to be attributed to it. The fact that this was a corporate capitalistic experiment, as described on pages 76-77, seems to have been overlooked.

A word of caution may be in order. While emphasizing scholarship, this paper must not be misconstrued to imply that content is the *alpha* and *omega* of worthwhile social studies instruction. The methods of teaching are as important as subject matter. There must be training in methods of thinking in acquiring and evaluating data. And even more vital than content and methodology is the question of philosophy of life, society, and education. There is need for considerable preliminary cultivation of the soil before we can sow the seeds of good scholarship and reap a golden harvest of coöperative citizenship in a democratic society.

RALPH B. GUINESS.

Richmond Hill High School.

SHALL WE TEACH TO TEST — OR TEST TO TEACH?

In its first article[1] under the above heading, the Tests and Measurements Committee of the Association of Teachers of Mathematics of New York City posed the question, "How Do YOU Make a Test?" The committee endeavored to press the point that most of our tests can be considerably improved from many points of view, so that we may know exactly what we are testing, so that we may be more able accurately to interpret our test scores and so that we may use our tests as instruments of teaching.

The committee felt that teachers might well learn something about test construction from professional test-makers, all of whose time and energy are devoted to the end of creating better, more reliable, more valid and more useful tests. In order to bring to you the approach of an organization which has distinguished itself in this field, Mrs. Kate Pankin of Flushing High School interviewed Dr. Arthur Traxler of the Educational Records Bureau.[2]

Perhaps the most interesting bit of information which we derived from that interview was the fact that the Coöperative Test Service found it necessary to put out a 1938 edition of its mathematics tests. These tests are based upon a complete set of up-to-date aims and objectives of teaching mathematics.

HOW A TEST-MAKER MAKES A TEST

When these tests were in the making, their makers sent a complete list of all possible aims and objectives to the schools which are members of the bureau. The teachers were asked to rate the aims according to the stress laid upon them in teaching, that is, according to their *active importance*. The tests were, thereupon, built around these weighted aims.

Please note that the test-maker found it advisable to spend as much as two years on the determination of the relative weights of the aims and objectives as well as upon the fixing of questions which would give proportionate prominence to the children's achievement along these lines.

Naturally, schools do not agree identically in the amounts of stress to be directed toward the achievement of any specific aim. When the questionnaires were returned by the teachers to the test-maker, he found it necessary to average the weights for each aim to get a central tendency for the group of schools which he served.

It is to be emphasized that an organization of the size and experience of the Educational Records Bureau is willing to spend as much time as indicated above in order to ascertain the aims and objectives in the teaching of mathematics in its member schools before it sets up test questions to be used in those schools.

Of course, this is not our problem, in that our aims and objectives have been set down for us.[3] It becomes our problem merely to become acquainted with them, to teach in their light, and, finally, to test the achievement of them.

Sometimes the aims themselves may change, and, too, the stress may be radically altered within a school or system of schools. Such a state of affairs renders an old test useless. A new test must be made, again suitably weighted as

[1] HIGH POINTS, September, 1938.

[2] The Educational Records Bureau is an organization which develops, records and analyzes results of tests for its member schools, which number several hundred, both public and private, and are to be found in all parts of the world. It is headed by Dr. and Mrs. Ben D. Wood and is located at 437 West 59th St., N. Y. C. It has developed the well known Coöperative Tests of the Coöperative Test Service of the American Council on Education.

[3] See: *The Reorganization of Mathematics in Secondary Education*, Department of Interior, Bureau of Education, 1921, No. 32 and *Aims and Objectives of Teaching of Mathematics* by The Standing Committee, Board of Education, N. Y. C.

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to questions so that the tests may test achievement of the aims and objectives of the teaching of that time and of that school or system of schools. It is the teacher's job to keep in constant touch with these changes. For example, the old tests in geometry which tested achievement of old-school type—facts and theorems—may no longer be suitable. If we are teaching this subject for broader purposes than mere factual information, if we are teaching to develop artistic appreciation, logical habits et al, then we must test the achievement of these aims.

It is interesting to notice that a geometry test built in the manner oulined above, namely, Coöperative Plane Geometry Test by John A. Long and L. P. Siceloff, which "emphasizes logical reasoning and comprehensive understanding of geometric concepts" gave results on New York City high school pupils which correlated .75 with school marks and .55 with Regents marks.[4]

WHAT ARE THE CURRENT TRENDS?

Nor is the Educational Records Bureau alone in taking this point of view. Within the past five years there has been considerable activity among teachers and testers, and the educational literature reveals a growing sentiment in this direction.

[4] Traxler, Arthur, *The Use of Test Results in Secondary Schools*, Educational Records Bureau, 1938, page 80.

Professor Maurice L. Hartung of Ohio State University, in referring to the development of logical habits of thought by means of geometry, said, ". . . teachers have said that this is one of their objectives but I know of only a few who are trying to find out if their pupils develop such a realization."[5] He also said, "when we mention 'development of ideals of perfection as to logical structure' *do we mean with respect to the materials of geometry* or do we mean with respect to other types of reasoning situations such as pupils meet outside of class? What does a good reasoner do that a poor reasoner does not do? Our beliefs about these matters have usually been shrouded in statements too vague and too general to be translated into effective action . . . It is questionable whether we can expect many of our important aims to be obtained by a blind following of the textbooks as they are now generally written. We need to find out whether other materials and other methods produce better results. This implies that we need more precise statements in order to have a basis for obtaining evidence that our objectives are being achieved."[6]

He says, in addition, "It is my belief that if we can obtain precise statements of our objectives and valid evidence that we are achieving them, many of our current criticisms of the teaching of mathematics may be eliminated."[7]

[5] M. L. Hartung, Evaluating Appreciation of the Cultural Values of Mathematics, *School, Science and Mathematics*, February, 1937. p. 169.

[6] Ibid, p. 170.

Professor Hartung stresses the need of keeping in mind our aims of teaching when we construct our tests. ". . . measurable *changes* in the behavior of the pupil should be observable between the beginning of his experience in the course and the end. Unless we can show that the pupils are changed as a result of their experience in the course we may have difficulty in justifying an objective, however worthy it may appear on logical grounds."[8]

Any unbiased teacher knows that the usual test of geometry gives little evidence of the pupils' achievement of the so-called "intangible" goals of the teaching of geometry.

In a forthcoming article, based upon an analysis of a great number of midterm and endterm tests given in the schools of New York City, this committee will show that the stress is almost constantly on facts and their application; infrequently have we found a question of appreciation of values, or logic brought into the test. Yet there is no reason for this complete disregard of the attainment of these objectives which have become our fundamental justification for the teaching of our subject.

[7] Ibid, p. 171.
[8] Ibid, p. 172.

In the article mentioned, Professor Hartung illustrates questions of logic which should be of value to every one of us professing to develop that skill.

In another article, Hartung says, "But unfortunately many people doubt that the study of mathematics, other than simple arithmetic, helps them in the effort to cope with the problems of day-by-day living. We can hardly expect these people to help us accumulate evidence on this question; the task is ours. This means that evaluation programs must include ways of discovering whether pupils have really grown in the ability to solve real problems. We must learn ways of measuring the extent to which pupils are achieving many objectives now classed as 'intangibles' . . . In my opinion, it is one of the most important problems now facing mathematics teachers. Our ability or inability to find a satisfactory solution will be a crucial factor affecting the future of mathematics in the secondary schools."[9]

WHAT CAN THE TEACHER DO?

Each time that the teacher makes a test she can keep in mind the aims and objectives as set forth, for example, by the Standing Com-

[9] M. L. Hartung, Some Problems in Evaluation, *Mathematics Teacher*, February, 1937, p. 175.

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mittee. She must translate these aims into specific situations in which the student will have an opportunity to show whether he has or has not achieved their common goal. The teacher will set up the test material in such a way as to get the most accurate record, and in the best form, of what the pupil can do. And, finally, the teacher will interpret the record in the light, once again, of the achievement of the aims and objectives.

It might not be unwise here to point out that the teacher will find it helpful to employ a variety of question types. Judicious use of the completion question rather than the direct question form in testing factual knowledge may introduce a greater element of logical choice. "All agree that one of the highest forms of self-activity which education should develop in pupils is the power to think or reason. Completion and other new type tests are well fitted to arouse this faculty in simple initial ways."[10] The multiple choice test might also serve to minimize the rote memory factor, and the careful use of the false-true question might develop a facility in recognizing falsehood, which is also a highly desirable outcome of training in mathematics.

"... it is not a question as to whether the essay or objective test is the better and then making exclusive use of that type. It is rather a question of determining the occasions and circumstances under which each is more valuable and then of using each accordingly.... Employ for that subject, and that particular phase of it, the type of test which fulfills the desired ends."[11]

You may say, as one teacher on our committee did, "Yes, these are the things I should like to do. Indeed, I do bring in all manner of references to extra-curricular things in my lessons. I stress the cultural aspects; I stress logic, until I remember the Regents. Then I drill, drill and drill on the old Regents questions. What else can I do?"

And, as we thought about these things as teachers working together toward a common goal, we remembered that our administrators and supervisors, some of whom served on the Standing Committee and helped to set up the aims and objectives to which we have made frequent reference, can help us to achieve these aims and objectives. If they will also keep in mind the test-makers' approach to a test, and test achievement of these objectives on uniform examinations, so that our students will not feel that we are cheating them when we do not drill on "test problems," then we will simultaneously change our tests and change our teaching.

If the Regents examination will also test achievement of these aims and objectives, then, and only then, perhaps, will even the timid ones be free to test mathematics, and we should be teaching our subject and not mere memorization of facts, sequences and methods.

[10] F. Durell and T. J. Durell, Getting the Most Out of Objective Tests in Mathematics, *Mathematics Teacher*, November, 1932, p. 378.

[11] Laura Blank, "Objective Testing in Secondary School Mathematics," *School, Science and Mathematics*, October, 1934, p. 708

LORRAINE W. ADDELSTON.[12]
Elmer Ellsworth Jr. H. S.
Chairman, Tests and Measurements Committee, Association of Teachers of Mathematics of New York City.

[12] The committee chairman wishes gratefully to acknowledge her indebtedness to her committee members for their aid in the preparation of this report, They are:
Grace Carlin, Bensonhurst Jr. H. S.
Ida Marks, George Washington H. S.
Kate Pankin, Flushing H. S.
David Roslow, Stuyvesant H. S.
Rose Turtz, Haaren H. S.

GUIDANCE AT GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOL

The increasing register and the changing personnel of the students in the high schools have necessitated a growing demand for individual careful guidance in assisting these high school students to make successful adjustments to their difficult social and economic needs.

Since, during the last few years, Girls' High School has more than doubled its register, two major problems face the administration and faculty of the school:

1. The adjustment of an inadequate physical plant to the increasing numbers and to the consequent expansion of the curricula.
2. The development of policies and techniques to meet the varied interests and potentialities of a diversified student group.

Recognizing these problems, Dr. Keyes, principal of Girls' High School, inaugurated in September 1937 a guidance organization, an expansion of the system of grade advisers which has long existed, and which, at the time of this writing, is completing its first year. A brief review of the work that has been done during the period will give a picture of what is being attempted.

In its largest meaning, every member of the faculty is engaged in guidance work. Our teachers are unusually alive to the needs of our students and are untiring in their efforts to make their work very personal and effective in meeting individual problems.

The specific guidance function is organized under the direction of a trained psychologist, who, as Dean and Chairman of Guidance, works with eight grade advisers who are responsible for advising their respective students concerning

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program of studies and individual educational problems. Five social advisers have charge of extra-curricular social activities. The first term grade adviser is permanent so that she may meet term after term the specific problems of entrants. For the same reason one of the social advisers is assigned permanently to the junior high school entrants. Assisting with the practical, routine work of the Guidance Office there are six W.P.A. assistants comprising three assistant counselors, a home visitor (much needed) and two secretaries. A full time Placement counselor provides part-time positions for our students and full time jobs for the graduates.

The guidance function covers roughly three phases: educational, vocational and social. Although these cannot be entirely divorced from one another the major emphases are as follows:

1. EDUCATIONAL

An intelligence test and a standard reading test are administered to every entering student. The results of these tests are recorded and are referred to in advising students concerning their choice of subjects. Periodic check up tests are given when needed. Each adviser has, on file, progress cards for her students. These cards give a complete picture to date of each student's academic success, interests and probable program. Grade advisers confer with their individual students concerning choice of courses or subjects in terms of interests and success.

In order to make the students more intelligent about their academic progress, grade meetings are called by the advisers, at which time the students are given surveys of the course offerings of the school and they are advised as to course sequences, etc. The official room teachers constantly consult the grade advisers concerning the programs of individual students. We also offer a non-Regents Progressive course for those students who will find it difficult because of less ability, financial need, to finish the regular course in time. No student is admitted to the Progressive Course except upon the recommendation of the grade advisers or the Dean. In order to help the students who are failing in their work but who have possibilities of ultimate success, the Guidance Office has instituted a study help service. Each period during the day a room is set aside under the direction of Arista students to which teachers may send a girl needing help with another more able student who will work with her.

2. VOCATIONAL

During her four years in high school, each girl is encouraged to make definite plans for her career. Books, pamphlets, bulletins, etc., are kept on file in the Guidance Office and the girls are urged to acquaint themselves with vocational possibilities. In so far as it is practicable, leaders of the various vocational fields are invited to meet with our interested students in conferences concerning the possibilities for girls in these particular fields.

All the teachers and the grade advisers, in particular, are constantly on the alert for special talent and advise the girls in terms of their specific abilities. Where interests and demonstrated ability or personality traits do not correlate, attempts are made to divert vocational preparations in a more desirable direction. From the curricular point of view, Dr. Keyes and her assistants are developing within the limits of organization possibilities, an extension of courses which will be of vocational value. The commercial, home making, and art departments have excellent offerings towards a practical solution of jobs for the girls.

For those of our students who need financial assistance in the way of part time work, for girls who are not able to finish the high school course and for our graduates who need positions immediately after graduation, good work is being done by our placement bureau. We have been fortunate in placing our girls in various types of positions in homes, in offices, in large and small retail stores. Unfortunately, we have many more applicants than we have positions available.

3. SOCIAL

The general unrest of the present social order is reflected among our students. Many student maladjustments go beyond the field of school work as such. Broken homes, crowded living conditions, inadequate family incomes all take their toll of a girl's emotional balance. Our guidance program includes much work in this field of social and emotional adjustment. Close coöperation with the various departments of the school is leading to the development of a program of integration having for its purpose the development of an all-around girl.

The Health Education Department very carefully checks the health of the students. Whatever adjustments in the way of limited programs, shortened day, are considered essential to the girl's well-being, are recommended by the health department and carried out by the administration. Unfortunately, the inadequacy of the school plant materially hampers the good work of the department.

Special attention is given to those of our students who have speech difficulties. This semester the worst cases of stuttering have been organized in a class which meets four times a week: one period with the speech expert, one period with a member of the music department, a third period with an instructor in health education and a fourth period with the Dean. Since stuttering has probably an

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emotional basis, our aim is to develop confidence and ease among these students.

Our clubs are numerous, are very active, and are so diversified that all types of interests may be met. Double sessions usually interfere with the extra-curricular activities of a school. We are meeting this difficulty by having special clubs which meet in the morning and are especially adapted to the interests of the afternoon session students. The Loyal League (student organization) to a great extent controls the group activities of the school. Since the Dean is the adviser of the Loyal League, there is great opportunity here for very practical coöperation between the guidance program and the student activities. The officers of the student organizations and the guidance counselors are constantly on the alert for opportunities which will develop student initiative and responsibility.

To meet the need for a clearing house for all kinds of personal questions, a course in Human Relations is given by the Dean for one period each week. The purpose of this course is to develop on a sound psychological basis, adjustment in home, social, business and political relations. The work is very practical and gives the girls an opportunity to discuss informally and intimately problems of individual interest. The enthusiasm of the girls for these weekly conferences attests to its value.

Recognizing the fact that we are not born with desirable social and civic attitudes and realizing that professional and business success is built upon personality factors as well as specific skills, we have inaugurated an attitude development program which is conducted by the students during a long section period once each month. The freshman classes discuss school attitudes, the second year classes home attitudes, third year social and civic attitudes and senior year professional and business attitudes. The various departments of the school coöperate with us in this program by including in their regular work any points of our program which are applicable to their particular subjects.

Since we are constantly being asked by business men and higher schools to report on the personal characteristics of our students, we are attempting to make that very elusive personality rating process as objective as possible. With the coöperation of faculty and students, we have devised a rating sheet consisting of ten items, each having five descriptive phrases. At the end of each term, the teachers check, on individual rating cards, about twenty of their students who are either definitely outstanding or definitely lacking in any of these characteristics. The students concerned see these cards and sign them. The cards are filed in the Guidance Office and are cumulative from term one to term seven. The average student will have no cards on file. Those students who show definite lack in any of the qualities become the special concern of the Guidance Office and are helped to overcome their difficulties. In the eighth term, all students are rated on all items. The cumulative rating of their eight terms is then transferred to the permanent record cards for future work. In this way, it is hoped to carry on practical personality development during the girls' school life and acquire as objective a rating as is possible for use after they have left the school.

4. INDIVIDUAL GUIDANCE

Our program, as it is outlined above, accepts as a definition of guidance, "assisting the student to make her own decisions." It implies a program of helping rather than of directing. A thoroughly organized, smoothly working program such as has been described will assist the majority of the students to make their own adjustments without individual attention except as a member of the group. However, not all problems can be met by means of group guidance in itself. There are always certain difficulties which are specific in character and require individual and personal help. Such cases are brought to the attention of the Guidance Office in one of two ways: A member of the faculty may recognize that a difficulty exists but does not have sufficient opportunity to help. The name of the student is submitted to the grade adviser concerned, who may handle it herself or pass it on with further information concerning the girl to the Dean. Here with understanding and friendliness the girl is aided to meet her problem. She may be carrying too much work or work beyond her abilities; she may be faced with economic lack (unfortunately there are too many of these cases); she may need physical care; her emotional attitude may require adjustment. Each case brings its own challenge. All the agencies at our command within and outside the school, including parents, teachers, schoolmates, and various social organizations are called upon to help us solve the problem.

The Dean's report on the history of the case and recommended therapy is kept on file and a periodic follow-up on the part of the assistant counselors carries the good work on towards a successful though often slow solution.

Individual difficulties come to our attention also by way of the girls themselves. We are proud of the fact that the Guidance Office is not that room to which you are called to "be put on the carpet." The girls drop in at all times with many questions. As the writer is on her way through the halls to conference or class, she is not at all surprised to have one of the girls fall in line with, "When will you be in the office? I'd like to

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ask you about something—it's not important—but" or "Do you remember what you said to me the other day, well, when can we talk some more about it" or again "I've just had a grand idea for the girls; when may I tell you about it?"

Our days are filled with "busyness." We never know what is coming next. We may reach the office an hour before we are due; someone is waiting for us assured of our friendly attention. We may be lingering at the desk longer after it should be closed but here comes a plea—"Oh, it is late, isn't it? I wonder if I can just talk to you for a minute or two." Of course she may, for that is guidance. In our work, we emphasize these personal contacts with the students more than we do the setting up of elaborate and formal organization. Unless the keeping of impressive records and the writing of scholarly reports contribute to the making of warm and friendly contacts with living personalities, they had better be omitted.

Here is Laura who has so many home activities and whose family is so much with her that she just can't concentrate on her work. Mary knows that all the girls are looking at her and so crawls under the bed when a counselor calls at her home to bring her to school. Mary likes us so much now that she wants to be with us all day and is joining the dramatic club! Jane will behave herself if we let her sit in the first row in her classes. She just "can't stand" sitting in the back of the room. Florence comes in to ask if we can persuade her mother to let her have milk every day. Mother thinks milk is too dear but she loves it and knows it is good for growing girls. P. S.—Mother is supplying the milk. Grace is a good student —but is very sad; she never smiles. She comes into the office once a week to smile a greeting to us and report the number of times she has volunteered in class! Ann is one of eight children who with mother and father live in a three room cold water flat. Ann's dad now has work, Ann has a part time job and they're going to move to a five room apartment with steam heat! Katherine is "scared to death" of Mr. Smith. He didn't know it—now he does and he is "just grand to me." Helen always wanted to be a doctor but she knows she can never make it. She was very much depressed until she discovered that she can easily qualify as a doctor's assistant, that she can even practice in work after school hours with a good doctor in the neighborhood. Life offers great possibilities to her now! Betty is quite introspective and feels that life is very complex. When she was twelve years old, she attempted suicide. However, she has at last discovered a kind of work in which she excels and can hardly wait until she is graduated and can start in it. There is really something worth living for! Dorothy was in love—terribly—and "he" died. Now she is throwing herself into all kinds of activity and doesn't get time to think. Dora's parents are dead. She has no relative except an older sister who is having a hard time keeping herself and two other sisters in college. Dora has no home. In fact, we are Dora's only friends. However, she doesn't feel entirely forsaken since we have been keeping her in good homes where she receives her board and room and a small salary for her part time work. Adele is conscientious and up to last term a successful student. Certain physical characteristics and a slowing down of mentality showed us something was wrong. Now, Adele is receiving pituitary gland treatment and is expecting to be graduated creditably in January.

And so it goes. Many of the problems seem trivial to the adult but they are very real to our girls; and that helping suggestion, that word of encouragement, that willing attention—all go to give to Guidance at Girls' High School a vital spirit of confidence and cooperation.

ALICE CROW.
Girls' High School.

HIGH POINTS

CONSUMER EDUCATION

An article entitled "The School and the Consumer" appeared in the September, 1938 issue of HIGH POINTS. We are in agreement with Mr. Reich when he states that "the school has no organized program of study for the student as a future consumer, as a buyer of specific goods in an industrial and commercial civilization that can outwit him at every turn."

The author directs attention, and rightly so, to the fact that we have a great deal of unrelated consumer education throughout the entire four years of the secondary school; that the biology, hygiene, economics and domestic science classes develop practical consumers of a great many articles, such as pots, pans, foodstuffs, cosmetics and patent medicines. He maintains, and we still subscribe to his position, that "because there is no organization for consumer education we are failing to achieve anything substantial. Without an organized course of study with goals and aims and objectives of a strictly consumer nature, replete with fact and application, practical and broad, there is no consumer education."

Mr. Reich also maintains that "there are too many scientific principles that can never mean much in the purchase of goods and they must be taught." Whereupon he submits an outline for a year's course in consumer education. At this point we part company with Mr. Reich.

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The course calls for an introductory unit, eight units on textiles, one on furs, one on leather, one on wood products, one on rubber, one on glass, one on china, two on metals, one on stones, one on arts, one on paints and varnishes, one on cosmetics, one on foods, one on investment and a final unit on budgeting. This is a condensed version; and since we do not wish to do Mr. Reich an injustice, we urge our readers to refer to the issue in which his suggested course of study appears in full.

Implicit in this course of study is the belief that we can teach children to become specialists in all conceivable consumer goods; that this special knowledge can be utilized by them in making their purchases; that as a result the handicaps of the "industrial and commercial civilization that can outwit him at every turn" will be overcome.

We deny categorically the possibility of accomplishing in a year's course what Mr. Reich sets out to accomplish. Unless we are prepared to turn the entire four years of the secondary school over to this project, we had better not undertake a field so vast.

Nor are we setting up any straw men. The number of products the consumer has occasion to purchase is legion. This, in itself, purely as a quantitative problem, creates a herculean task. Some of them are intricate mechanisms; to comprehend the values of these would require the training and skill of a mechanical or electrical engineer. Moreover, in many cases there may be sincere differences of opinion. Within the consumer movement itself, research organizations frequently differ in their evaluation of commodities. Nor do consumer research organizations always recommend the products sold by consumer coöperatives.

Let us assume for the sake of further discussion and clarification that the implicit aims of Mr. Reich's course of study are realizable. Even then, those who pin their faith on this type of course wholly underestimate the inherent difficulties encountered by the consumer in the modern economic market. It is not merely a question of commodities. That is the basic mistake Mr. Reich makes. Place must be made for the discussion of consumer services. References in Mr. Reich's outline to the problems of consumer credit, to the problems of housing, to the problems of insurance in an age of insecurity, and to the problems of the consumer's health are conspicuously absent. These are only a small sampling of the consumer problems which are crying out for a solution. Mr. Reich's course does not present the major problems, let alone offer any solutions.

A similar approach appears in a short article in the December, 1937 issue of HIGH POINTS by Phyllis B. Bush and Jerome W. Hamburger of the Abraham Lincoln

High School. Here too the authors bemoan the fact that the student "is treated realistically as a potential citizen. But strangely enough, little has been done to make him aware that he is a potential consumer." The authors indicate the consumer education aspects of biology, physics, chemistry and home economics, following upon which they make a plea for an integrated course. Then follows a tentative list of topics for the course.

1. The Purchase of Wearing Apparel.
2. The Purchase of Food Products.
3. The Purchase of Drugs.
4. The Purchase of House Furnishings.
5. The Purchase of Luxuries.
6. Principle of Advertising and Retailing.
7. The Need for Government Legislation.

Except for minor variations this outline bears a very close resemblance to Mr. Reich's. The arguments advanced against the first apply with equal force to the second.

Any worthwhile, integrated course for consumers must not undertake the impossible. Its aims must be realizable in fact as well as in theory. It must be conscious of other problems besides those connected with buying goods. In line with the criticism of the two suggested courses, we present for the consideration of secondary school teachers the following skeleton outline of a course of study intended for use at the Samuel J. Tilden High School.

Unit I—The General Problem

a. Standards of Living.
b. Factors which condition the Standard of Living.
c. Obstacles to Freedom of Choice for Consumers.

Unit II—Wastes in the Consumers' Dollar

a. Unwise buying.
b. Misrepresentation.
c. Competitive wastes.
d. Monopoly
e. Advertising.

Unit III—Budgeting

a. Purpose of a budget.
b. Construction of the budget.
c. Engels' Law (reference is made here to a study of family incomes).

Unit IV—The Movement for Standards

a. The Large Manufacturer as a Consumer.
b. Impracticability of these methods for Small Consumers.
c. Grading.

Unit V—Eliminating the Middleman's Profit

a. The Middleman and the Modern Market.
b. Partial Elimination of the Middleman.
c. Consumers' Coöperative Movement.

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Unit VI—The Government and the Consumer

a. Pure Food and Drug Legislation.
b. The New Deal and the Consumer.
   1. Crop restriction.
   2. Price fixing.
   3. Monetary policy.
c. Taxation and the Consumer.
d. New York City Bureau.

Unit VII—The Consumer and Credit

a. Peculiarities of Consumer Credit.
b. Installment buying.
c. Personal Loans.

Unit VIII—Housing

a. History of Housing.
b. Present Sub-Standard Conditions in Housing.
c. A Housing Program.
d. Legislative Control over Housing.
e. Private Attempts to Construct Low Cost Housing.
f. Federal Assistance in Housing.
g. Low Cost Housing in Europe.
h. Individual Problems of Consumers with Respect to Housing:
   1. Interpretation of leases.
   2. Legal rights of tenants.
   3. Buying or building a house.

Unit IX—Life Insurance

a. Social Character and Purpose of Life Insurance.
b. Analysis of Existing Insurance Facilities.
c. Methods of Selling Insurance.
d. Cost of Insurance.
e. Insurance as an Investment.
f. Extent to Which Insurance Fulfills its Aims.
g. A Program for Improvement.

Unit X—The Consumers' Health

a. Private Medicine.
b. Group Practice of Medicine.
c. Socialized Medicine.

Unit XI—The Consumer and Labor

a. Consumer Responsibility for Labor Conditions.
b. Methods of Consumer Pressure.

We do not expect to train insurance or housing specialists. Nor have we overlooked the question of commodities. In view of the number of commodities in existence and the speed with which they change, the school can hope to do no more than indicate to the prospective consumer the fact that such a problem exists, the sources of information to which he can refer, to train him in the interpretation of such information and to indicate the organizations to which he can look for guidance.

We advance an integrated course of study, in which the attention of the student is focused upon the *major issues* which challenge the consumer, and with which he must wrestle in a highly dynamic industrial society.

ETTA MILLER.
JULES KOLODNY.
Samuel J. Tilden High School.

CAFETERIA

Cafeteria duty! It's always a headache. Teachers dislike it because pupils are noisy, sloppy, and hard to handle. Actually, it seems to be the place which brings out the worst in a student. This is especially so when the cafeteria has to care for twelve hundred robust and active pupils a period.

Believing that pupil behavior is a pupil responsibility, we have evolved a "table captain system" to solve our cafeteria problem. We find that this system not only helps to maintain proper decorum, but also is an excellent means of developing pupil coöperation and pupil leadership.

All eighth term pupils are assigned to a table for their lunch period as indicated in red on their subject-section cards. Each table captain receives a small button indicating his class year. This serves as an identification to both pupils and teachers. The buttons are worn throughout the lunch period.

Each table captain checks the attendance at his table. Table captains secure the coöperation of students at their tables in matters pertaining to cleanliness, pupil behavior, and other points that are indicative of good breeding. Furthermore, the table captains, being upper classmen, can advise the pupils at their tables as to what clubs to join, programs to follow, and so forth. In other words, each table captain acts as a big brother or sister to the students at his or her table. Table captains are free to call upon inspectors or teachers to aid them in securing the desired coöperation.

At the end of the period, a whistle is blown and the table captains stand. The rest of the student body remains seated until the gong sounds. At this time, the table captains check on the cleanliness of their tables and help to maintain quiet. At the gong, all students rise, push their chairs into place, line up in an orderly manner, and proceed to the next period. Each captain is responsible for the condition of the chairs and table at the end of the period, and is the last of his group to leave.

Each table captain receives a notation both upon his report card and permanent record sheet for cafeteria service.

Thus, by holding the upper classmen responsible for the behavior of their classmates, not only do we make the cafeteria a "livable place" but we also develop pupil coöperation and leadership.

LOUISE FUCHS.
DAVID F. SYGODA.
Grover Cleveland High School.

PROF. QUIZ COMES TO THE GERMAN CLASS

Interest in foreign languages can be furthered by up-to-date assembly programs. If success in teaching depends in part upon the apperceptive basis, upon lively response, and upon a feeling of success on the part of the pupil, I am sure the assembly program de-

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scribed below will show good results.

Our children spend so much time listening to the radio that I decided to follow the pattern of a well-known radio program. My aim was to interest the younger pupils of Junior high School 73, Queens, in German. Let me say in advance that the same idea can be used to encourage youngsters to study any language. The program was based on the famous Professor Quiz radio hour. I should like to describe the procedure in detail with the hope in mind that it will lead other language teachers "to go and do likewise."

A pupil briefly traced the growth of the English language from its beginnings through the Anglo Saxon and the Norman periods to its present state. Five boys and five girls, who know no German, and who do not come from homes where German is spoken, came to the platform. A Miss Professor Quiz was introduced; she gave the contestants an opportunity to practice with cognates: *zu—to, aus—out, leben—live, Kuh—cow, Pfennig — penny, dies — this, Stein—stone.* Two large charts showing the German words and their English equivalents were visible to the entire auditorium. The cognate sounds *z* and *t*, *pf* and *p*, and so forth, were underlined.

The first five rounds consisted only of words; these ranged in difficulty from *Glas, Arm, Hand, Land, Ring,* and *gut* to *Ende, Rose, wandern, Papier,* and *Familie.* The audience enjoyed seeing the contestants struggle with the difficult words, hearing the gong ring, and watching the scores go up.

In the next two rounds, three names were given each contestant. One of the names was German. Professor Quiz informed the pupils that they were to choose the German name, and that they would receive extra points if they guessed the meaning of the name. Among the trios of names were: Weiss, Ainsworth, Latham; Cornell, Schwarz, Donald; Deutsch, Scott, Maslin; Kingsley, Curran, Weber. Should anyone find these two rounds too difficult, he can substitute other ones that would call for the choosing of a particular German thing from a group of three. Among these could be a German dish, ship, zeppelin, aviator, mathematician, inventor, opera, song, coin, or street; e.g., *soupe l'oignon, ham and eggs, Sauerbraten; Unter den Linden, Champs D'Elysees, Main Street.*

The last two rounds which were the most difficult afforded the greatest pleasure. Pupils heard German sentences and understood them! Among these were: *New York ist in Amerika; Karl ist hier; Sprechen Sie Deutsch; Wir hören am Radio;* and *Der Telephon funktioniert nicht.* A perfect answer netted as high as fifty points.

The final scores were read and all the participants received rounds of applause. Professor Quiz concluded the program by reminding the pupils again that German and English are very much alike, and that they were really well prepared to hit safely in the game of studying German by their knowledge of English.

Success in this type of program depends in part upon imitating the actual conditions of the original radio hour. There should be a time limit, a gong, scores after each round, and highest scores at the end. Care must be taken to see that easy questions precede the more difficult ones lest all concerned become discouraged and lose interest. The joy which all the pupils show when they know the answers will be genuine. In fact, during all the twelve rounds Professor Quiz had to caution the listeners against helping the contestants. I can safely say that the message did "go across" and that a good time was had by all while a new horizon was being opened.

MAX LEIVE.

J. H. S. 73.

POETRY AS VIVID EXPRESSION

There wasn't a student in the class who didn't know what a "jitterbug" was. And I was the only one puzzled when, having invited suggestions for common slang expressions, I got "licorice stick" (clarinet) and "skin-beater" (drummer). Somehow the slang, all agreed, seemed more vivid. "High-hat" was better than "snob"; "bouncer" improved on "one who dismisses." Some were even impressed with the conclusion that the picture-making quality of the slang terms explained their vividness and that such terms very often involve or imply effective comparisons.

Well—was a man daffy if one moment he spoke about "hunched camels of the night,"[1] the next about "heavenly washing hung out to dry,"[2] and all the time could have said "clouds" and saved his breath? Was a woman who asked the sea to whirl up its "pointed pines" and splash its "cool firs on the shore"[3]—as if the sea had pines, or anything except salt water—a goop? Could a lamp post be a kind of tree growing along the edges of a walk bearing a "magic flower with heart of flame?"[4] What kind of nonsense was it to hear someone speak about gossiping old maids and find out that trees in the wind were what was meant all along? No . . . the class seemed to like the idea . . . all except Bob "A Tree-Is-a-Tree" Fitzpatrick who couldn't see much sense to walking all around a thought when one could bee-line to the same place in half the time.

I went on. Eleanor Woodall's "Night" compared the night to a beautiful woman with raven locks and diamonds in her hair; another poem made out spring as a fair

[1] "An Arab Love Song" by Francis Thompson.
[2] "Washerwoman's Song"—L. A. G. Strong.
[3] H. D.'s "Oread."
[4] "Lamp Posts" by Helen Hoyt.

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young girl with golden hair who comes to open the shutters of a dark house; in a third, Carl Sandburg said that a lost small boat looking for a harbor is "like a child in tears and trouble searching the harbor's breast and the harbor's eyes."

By this time the air had warmed. "A Magic World" supplied further fuel with "Phlox" (126),[1] "Child's Song in Spring" (122), "The Spirit of the Birch" (120), and "The Willows" (119). The bell rang just as Fitzpatrick, of all people, had discovered willows and girls with long hair to be very much alike—"if you go in for that stuff." There was just enough time left after the warning bell to squeeze in the advice that "picturesque patter" in the *Readers Digest* and billboard advertisements might provide more of this tree-is-not-a-tree business. Who knows? Dawn-glow silks might have hues like the twilight. Golden glow tea and wine-rich coffee might enthirst irresistibly.

For a day thereafter I might just as well have tried to get a word in at a gossip convention as to proceed with any lesson plan of my own.

Patricia Williams came to class armed with a half dozen well-fingered magazines—*Readers Digests*—and wanted to be heard. Walter Lupton reported his reaction to the October trees outside: they were painted Indians going to their death. And what commerce might have been initiated: the new Lincoln Zephyr, tomorrow's dream car, smooth as the wind; the Mercury, swift as the winged God; the Aladdin bicycle that brought your dreams when you rubbed its bars.

I suggested that they might write good copy themselves, or play the little game of calling names and letting the reader guess what one's talking about. Even Fitzpatrick could try walking around his thoughts in a circle. The sun, the moon, dark cellars, rainy nights, autumn woods, chemistry laboratories, dance floors, rivers—all of these might look like something else if one looked hard. Patricia Murphy wrote

MEMORY OF SNOWFALL

Silent night
White blanket over the sleeping land
Flakes like jewels swirling carelessly
A house with lit windows like a picture
on a Christmas card
A distant hill—the icing of a birthday
cake.

Gracemae Cuccio contributed another—

SUN

Morning—a flaming torch
In the fields below workers like sleepy
sheep on a warm summer's
afternoon
At day's end a huge orange sphere
The horizon an artist's palette
Carelessly spattered with shades of red,
orange, yellow.

The whole class wrote—well too. They seemed to like it.

"You know," said a quiet little girl who almost apologized for remaining a moment after class to whisper her thought to me, "I never knew a poet was a person who *really* sees things you *think* you see, and says things the way *you'd* like to be able to say them."

Maybe that's a definition of a poet too.

ABRAHAM PONEMON.
Andrew Jackson High School.

AN ACTIVITY PROGRAM FOR THE TEACHING OF VEGETATIVE PROPAGATION

The topic of vegetative propagation is often taught solely or to a very large extent, through the medium of discussion and textbook illustration. This situation is an unfortunate one, since the subject of asexual reproduction, perhaps more so than any other topic in the syllabus, can most effectively illustrate the meaning of the term, "Biology." Students can watch the life processes of growth and reproduction take place before their very eyes. Instead of long lessons and dull textbook assignments, projects and experiments with live material will awaken that interest and enthusiasm which is invaluable to the learning process. Plants and animals useful in the teaching of vegetative propagation are readily available. Many materials can be found at home in the cupboard where the vegetables for daily use are stored. The backyard, the window box, the classroom aquarium and terrarium are other prolific sources of supply.

At the beginning of the term the accumulation and propagation of materials in anticipation of the teaching of asexual reproduction was begun. The following organisms were obtained and utilized:

1. Eel grass from an established classroom aquarium was used to illustrate runners.

3. Ferns and rattlesnake plantain were taken from a classroom terrarium of long standing to show rhizomes.

3. Onions, narcissus, crocus, hyacinth and tulips were used as examples of bulbs.

4. Hydrangea stems were brought in by boys from their front lawns and back yards to demonstrate reproduction by layering.

5. Carrots, beets, horse radishes, black radishes, turnips and parsnips were used to illustrate reproduction by fleshy roots.

6. Potatoes were used as examples of tubers.

7. Bryophylum and begonia leaf cuttings were made.

8. The stems of coleus, lilac, four-o-clock, sedum, hydrangea and rose were utilized to demonstrate stem cuttings.

9. Well fed hydra in a syracuse dish were used to show budding.

10. Planaria which had previously been brought in by the Field Trip Club were used in the teaching of regeneration.

These demonstrations were all labeled and neatly arranged in the

[1] Number in parentheses refers to page number of book.

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preparation room. Some of the materials required special preparation. For example, each stem cutting was placed in a test tube and supported by a cork stopper through which a hole had been previously bored. To facilitate the insertion of the stem through the hole, the cork was slit on one side. The prepared cuttings were then placed in a test tube rack, where they were kept during their entire period of growth. The upper third of each fleshy root was cut from the remainder of the root and placed in water in a shallow dish. Many of the materials were treated with Hormodin solution for twenty four hours in order to stimulate their growth and were then placed in water. Hormodin, with complete directions for its use, may be purchased from any of the well-known seed distributors.

Some time later, when the materials indicated quite clearly the characteristics for which they were being grown, they were shown to the teachers. Shortly before the actual teaching of the subject of vegetative reproduction was begun, some of the demonstrations were placed on exhibition shelves in the classrooms so that the students could familiarize themselves with the materials. In this way, the exhibit was able to serve as excellent motivation for the approaching work. The teachers were asked to point out that it was possible for the boys to do these propagation experiments at home or in school. Pupils were told that they could ask for the Hormodin solution for use on any experiments which they wished to do at home in connection with this topic.

There was an immediate response on the part of the boys. The preparation room was soon flooded with a varied assortment of plants which could be used to advantage in the teaching of this phase of the syllabus. Other pupils volunteered to take care of the materials and propagate them for future use. One squad was assigned to take care of the plant material while another group began the care and feeding of planaria and hydra. As a separate project, several boys took photographs before and after results were obtained. These photographs were later exhibited to the classes. Since there were no electrical outlets to serve as a source of heat, the problem of how to protect these plants during the impending cold weather had to be overcome. One of the boys who had assisted in the project volunteered to build a miniature hothouse. Many others brought in cuttings and examples of layering which are rarely obtainable for classroom use. Still others reported that they had started vegetable gardens at home for decorative purposes.

The purpose of this article does not permit a lengthy discussion regarding the far reaching results of the project as a whole. Nevertheless, a few of the beneficial outcomes of the topic deserve mention. In the first place, all concerned have been very much gratified by the hearty response. That the creative instincts of the pupils had been aroused was shown by the numerous desirable projects which were undertaken by students both at home and in school. It was apparent that the pupils became acquainted in a practical way with the processes they were studying. Instead of talking vaguely about asexual reproduction, pupils actually carried on experiments with living materials. They discovered that these processes were not only to be found in a textbook but could be carried on in their own gardens and window boxes. A live interest on the part of the pupils was indicated by their wholehearted coöperation.

During the course of the project, a great amount of interest was aroused even among teachers who visited the laboratory. Questions were asked which gave evidence that the display of materials was out of the ordinary. Teachers outside the department who happened to see the exhibits became sufficiently interested to inquire how the plants on display could be grown in the home for decorative purposes. The thought that there may be others who would be interested in stimulating project work in connection with the teaching of vegetative propagation prompted this article.

Biology should be taught so far as possible through the use of live material. Almost every topic in our syllabus can be taught with the aid of live organisms which are readily available. A little thought and effort devoted to the selection, preparation, and effective use of such material will be well rewarded. Not only is the learning process aided immeasurably but the intangible outgrowths resulting from the interest and activity engendered are far more valuable than the mere accumulation of knowledge. We must continue our efforts to teach Biology through the use of living materials.

JULIUS GELBARD.
LOUIS W. KAMINET.
Boys High School.

THE NON-ACADEMICALLY-MINDED CHILD

What is he? It is possible to define by comparison of tests and achievement a "slow learning child," a "backward child," and a "retarded child." But how determine the non-academically minded child?

(1) He cannot be determined by his I.Q. because this is a measurement in terms of activities that require schooling; a low I.Q. may mean poor basic schooling rather than poor type of mind.

(2) It cannot be determined by his achievement alone, for this may

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be due to illness, absence, or poor fundamental training. He may be merely backward or retarded. His poor achievement may be due to poor teaching.

(3) It cannot be determined by a "survey of interests," because interests of adolescents are fluid and change frequently.

(4) It cannot be determined by an "aptitude" test because intellectual and manual aptitudes are not mutually exclusive.

The danger is that we are using a term to cover our own inefficiency and our own failures. Experienced school people know that pupils who had no *apparent* academic interest while in school, have seen the light a year or two later, completed their way through night school, passed through college and entered into the professions.

The so-called non-academically minded child, may have a low I.Q., perhaps around 90, because he may show up poorly on a scholastic aptitude test as well as on a mechanical ability test. These young people come to secondary school not necessarily without capacity for the development of the systematic training necessary for the development of their processes. A survey of such a group will reveal:

1. A lack of organized mental processes.
2. Inability to think, and a propensity for guessing.
3. Ignorance of the methods of study and of the need and value of study.
4. An unwillingness to study.
5. An absence of constructive habits of any kind.
6. Inability to comprehend and follow simple and explicit directions.
7. Disinclination to focus attention upon anything beyond their personal desires.
8. Inadequately trained eyes and ears.
9. Want of vital interests to motivate properly their mental activities.
10. Lack of knowledge of the meaning of individual words.

To throw these children into a type of work which does not remedy these defects, but which permits them to loaf or to remain in blissful ignorance of the fact that they have the solution of their problem under their own control is to deny the very reason for education. We are saying in other words, these children should not be given academic work because they are too stupid for academic work; whereas they are too stupid for academic work, because we have not been teaching them genuinely their academic work. To argue so is to argue in a circle.

Nor is the remedy to throw these children into industrial arts; the same qualities that render them unfit for academic work render them unfit for industrial arts. Our

school once made this mistake. We bought an automobile, installed carpenter benches, etc., only to discover the students were no more interested in this kind of work than they were in academic work.

Industrial arts work is not a separate and distinct field from academic work. The study of furniture involves the study of history —the characteristics of the various periods of furniture being intimately connected with political and social history. Likewise ceramics, textiles, etc., involves a study, not only of history, but of art, economic geography, economics, literature and languages. Consequently to throw the so-called non-academically minded into this course is merely to dump the problem from one field to another.

The true solution is to attack the problem at its source; to teach for discipline of the mental processes regardless of the subject, focussing upon the rearrangement of mental habits. The school of today is in need of nothing so much as training the man in the street how to think, how to distinguish fact from fancy. Viewed from this angle the problem becomes fundamentally one of *method* and not of *content*. Latin may be used as effectively as English; art and activity, manual skills as well as intellectual skills, may be called upon to help solve the problem; but essentially, the solution depends on teaching techniques that result in better coördination and functioning of mental processes.

Along with training of the mind should go training of the hand. Pupils may be placed in art classes that study related topics: e.g., drawing of Roman helmets, chariots, shields, or modeling in clay, or sculpturing in soap. The work may be correlated with work in textiles and costumes. In shop it may be correlated with Roman house construction, Roman furniture, wagons, ships, etc. In this way the academic education functions as the means whereby the pupil improves his thought processes while the related hand crafts furnish not only a means for applying his academic knowledge and skills but also cultivate and develop any industrial skill he may possess.

What can the study of Latin accomplish for this student? I am using Latin as an example; what is true for Latin is true for other academic subjects.

1. It may be used as a means of developing word consciousness. Every Latin word has a meaning of which he must become aware, and awareness of Latin meanings brings awareness of English meanings.

2. It may be used as a means of training the pupil to see. A pupil is required to observe terminations. This stops guessing at the form and compels the focus of atten-

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tion. Moreover, for proper meaning, the observation must be accurate. He must observe long marks. He is called upon constantly to exercise his powers of observation and he begins to form habits of observation.

3. It may be used as a means of training the ears to hear. Blurred auditory images are as ineffectual as blurred visual images. Listening to commands, to instructions, is a vital part of life. Listening to oral sentences, interpreting them, is a vital part of Latin.

4. It may be used as a means of developing clear enunciation. Latin is a phonetic language. No word swallowing, no clipped forms, no dropped "g." Careful speech is a necessity.

5. It may be used as a means of developing the power of attention. A pupil must attend not to one thing at a time, but to many. His attention span must take in several facts at once and his mind must operate in several fields at the same time.

6. It may be used as a means of developing the ability to comprehend and follow instructions. He is constantly faced with a task which requires solutions, and with instructions how to proceed.

7. It may be used as a means of developing constructive habits. The pupil is learning how to get information from the printed page. He is learning to bring to his command certain skills, and to thrust from consciousness certain intruding ideas.

8. It may be used as a means of learning the process of study. Methods of attack, procedures are taken up with him from day to day.

9. It may be used as a means of learning to think. There can be no guessing. He is constantly subject to the check of proving himself right.

10. It may be used as a means of organizing his mental processes. He has learned to coördinate ear, eye, hand, and tongue. He has learned not only observation, but analysis and synthesis.

To make Latin an end in itself, is to fail; but to make Latin the means of unfolding latent abilities, for establishing habits of self-control, focussed-attention, and application, for stimulating new interests and for organizing these interests, habits, and abilities into an effective mechanism for daily use, will be to succeed abundantly with a class of pupils.

Evidently, in this process, Latin is merely a means. The real effect is created by the means.

1. Vivid first impressions must be made.
2. The start must be with fundamentals.
3. Permanent principles must come first.
4. Procedure must be from the known to the unknown, from the simple to the complex.
5. At the outset, attention must be focused on the one thing at a time.
6. Fixation must depend upon continued repetition.
7. The vocabulary must be as objective as possible at the start.

Viewed from this angle, the essential fact is not *what* we teach the so-called non-academically minded, but *how*. This does not mean that a student shall not be given carpentry, electric wiring, but it does mean that giving him these vocational avenues does not relieve him from the necessity of receiving that training in mental processes demanded both by his own real needs and the needs of society.

CHARLES A. TONSOR.
Grover Cleveland High School.

THE CLASS NEWSPAPER IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

A feature of the N.E.A. convention held in New York City in June, 1938 was an exhibit of evidences of pupil activity in the city schools. One booth in the Port Authority building was devoted, in part, to the newspaper work in the various social studies departments. All of the newspapers were products of extra-curricular work by students, and they ranged from several mimeographed sheets to carefully printed pages, approximating in size the average high school newspaper. The articles varied from treatments of historical events to interpretations of the news of the day, and it was obvious that the better students in the department had accomplished the work.

The satisfaction the contributors must have felt in seeing their creation in print and circulated among their classmates surely compensated for the effort of collecting and reworking material on a topic either assigned to them or of their own choosing. The advantages to the student of participating in the publication of a newspaper devoted to the social studies might well be utilized in every day class work. With this in mind, the present writer set about arousing student interest in such a project.

Two classes in first term Modern European history, composed of pupils of average ability, were used. One period a week for the first four weeks of the term was set aside for a study of current events with special emphasis placed on the detection of propaganda in the daily newspaper. Pupils were encouraged to criticize specific articles and search for bias in the reporting of the news. A point was reached where most students concluded that none of our newspapers was perfect. At this point, it was suggested that the class turn out its own newspaper. The idea was greeted enthusiastically and

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the teacher suggested that in as much as we had recently finished a study of the French Revolution, it might be a good idea to pretend that we were reporters living in France during the period from 1789-1795. "What shall we call it?" was one of the first questions asked by the pupils. Several titles were suggested and after several minutes of debate, the title "European Highlights" was decided upon.

All pupils were to take part in the project. Those students who were talented in drawing were asked to contribute original cartoons which might be included in a newspaper covering the events of the Revolution. A few not qualified for either writing or art work were placed on the technical staff. Their job was to mimeograph the completed stencils, bostitch the papers, and circulate them among their classmates. Thus, each student was encouraged to feel that he was a vital part of the enterprise.

In order to guide the newspaper work along definite lines, the teacher drew up a mimeographed sheet containing page references to source books, notably Robinson and Beard's *Readings in Modern European History*. Biographical works and general secondary books on the French Revolution were included. A list of topics was also suggested, but students were encouraged to write on events or personalities which appealed to them provided they consulted the teacher. Their attention was also directed to the list of special topics and bibliographies at the end of the chapters on the French Revolution in the textbook.

All were to be reporters and write in the present tense. Originality in the presentation of material was encouraged. For example, one student might act as inquiring reporter, another might personally interview Marie Antoinette or Robespierre, still another might write a series of questions under the title: "Information Please."

The "reporters" and "cartoonists" were given two weeks in which to turn in their work. The former were asked to double space their articles so that the editorial staff might write in corrections. They were also instructed to indicate clearly the source of their information (viz.: authors, titles, exact pages read). When the work was handed in, the teacher selected an editorial staff of fifteen students from both classes. A short meeting was held after school and the teacher instructed the editors in criteria to be used in selecting the best articles. Accuracy, originality, interest of the articles to the pupil readers were held up as desirable criteria.

Each editor was given five articles to read carefully and write specific criticisms in the margin. Articles recommended for publication were to be starred in the upper right hand corner to facilitate final selection. The editors were given a weekend to complete their criticisms. When the reports were returned to the teacher, he read the criticisms and returned the best articles to five of the editors for further revision of sentence structure and choice of words. When these were returned, the stencils were prepared. Drawings were selected on the basis of their relation to the articles being published as well as quality. The articles were then stenciled by a pupil under the supervision of the teacher.

An attractive heading for the newspaper was selected by the editors from the designs submitted by the pupils responsible for the art work. These as well as the cartoons were drawn in pencil on cardboard cut so that the finished drawing could be placed under the stencil and traced with a stylus. In this project, the title "European Highlights" was placed between two globes, the size of a half-dollar and containing the outlines of the European continent. There were two columns to a page and the headlines were newsy (viz.: "Paris Mob Storms Bastille"; "Third Estate Restless — Burdensome Dues Listed"; "Inside Story of the Night of August 4," etc.). One cartoon, accompanying an article on the Estates-General, showed a peasant dragging a heavily loaded wagon in which were piled boxes labelled "taille," "gabelle," "corvee," and so forth. On top of these were perched figures of a bishop and a nobleman.

Since the period covered extended from 1789 to 1795, the date lines varied. However, this feature was minimized and other details of the newspaper played up. The pupils were aware of the fact that the events of seven years did not take place in one day.

The completed newspaper, mimeographed and bostitched by the previously selected technical staff, was then distributed to the pupils.

The major criticism of the class newspaper in the past has been that too great a burden falls upon the teacher. It is hoped that the present writer has indicated ways in which the burden may, to some extent, be lightened. However, the teacher must expect to play an important role in the publication of the newspaper. The values derived from such a project make the expenditure of time worthwhile. Many of the pupils gain first hand contact with source material and grow to appreciate its superiority over secondary sources of information. The need for accuracy is emphasized and the necessity of examining evidence before reaching a conclusion is made clear. Pupil criticism of pupil articles utilizes the capacity of the brighter students for exercising their judgment and observing the results of their efforts. The duller students are aroused to a greater interest in the subject when they feel their talents are being utilized in the class proj-

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ect. A spirit of coöperation among the students is fostered by the production of a newspaper in which all can take pride. An appreciation of the problems of the newspaperman in gathering material for his daily column is heightened. Historical-mindedness is encouraged and contributes to a better understanding of past cultures.

The murmur of approval when the newspaper is distributed will compensate the teacher for the effort expended.

HOWARD L. HURWITZ.
Grover Cleveland High School.

HARVARD OUTLINE

The re-action to the making of outlines for compositions is usually the same. "Do we have to make an outline?", "I hate outlines," "I always write my composition first and then make out that old outline." So, the teacher faced her new fifth term class and wondered. They all looked so eager and unsuspecting that she hated to begin that old line about architects and their plans for houses and English students and their outlines for compositions. Personally, she never consciously makes an outline herself. There it was in the English five syllabus, however, "The Harvard System of Outlining." She decided to defer the ordeal and go on with her newspaper project. They were making a comparative study of newspapers and incidentally learning how to use the various parts of a paper. Then, without really thinking much about it, they found themselves analyzing the contents of the various editorials and columns. Deductively they were doing outlines. They weren't architects planning new houses, but archeologists carefully taking houses apart to see how they had been made. They discovered that editorial writers, generally, adhere to a certain plan or outline.

One plan was

I. The concise explanation of the topic.
II. Editor's opinions of what has been done about it.
III. Editor's opinions of what should be done about it.

Another was

I. Explanation of the event.
II. What may happen as a result.
III. What can be done to prevent this.

Following these carefully worked out plans, the class wrote their own editorials. Such topics as "Tolerance," "Pan American Relations," "Old Age Pensions," "The World's Fair"—all lent themselves to these outlines.

Encouraged by the results seen in their own compositions, the students were willing to go on to the analyzing of the movie columns. These, it seemed, followed a definite plan too.

It proved to be

I. General opinions of acting and plot of movie.
II. Opinion, with reasons, of the plot.
III. Opinion, with reasons, of the acting.

The necessity for the above outlines was easily seen when the class realized that a person who was in a hurry could find all he needed to know in paragraph one. If he had time and was interested, he could find more specific information in paragraphs two and three. So, the class wrote their own reviews following this and approved of themselves highly.

Later, they took book reviews apart and found another outline

I. People to whom the book would have value.
II. Concise statement of the problem in the book without giving the author's solution.
III. Feeling of reader after reading the book.

Thus aided, the class had little trouble with the next book report.

Having discovered more or less indirectly, that there's an order about most things, the pupils transferred their own powers of analyzing to the spoken word. Radio political speakers were carefully checked. Woe to the speaker whose talk didn't formulate itself into a definite outline! Luckily, President Roosevelt can be relied upon to give a speech that follows a perfect outline. The teacher felt amply rewarded when she found one of the lesser minds in the class carefully making an outline of a very dry speech given in assembly by some visiting luminary. An outline had become a reality, not just something which you [illegible] composition just to satisfy the English teacher.

GERALDYN DELANEY.
Seward Park High School.

"BINGO"—A DEVICE IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE STUDY

Do you detest those cut and dried vocabulary drills or tests, sometimes with no appreciable result? Or, have you one of those apathetic classes where you think all your efforts are futile? Then try playing BINGO with them and see them teem and bubble over with delight! Have they learned those fifty or one hundred words? Try this game and see for yourself. This device may be used for reviewing numerals, vocabulary, idioms, synonyms, antonyms and even verbs. How? Well if you have been very wicked and participated in a Bingo party, then you know how it is played. For those others . . . well, here it is. You'll like it. (The following explanation may seem involved, but it works out very easily, as most pupils know how to play it.) Have each pupil prepare at home on his home work paper a Bingo square about 7″ x 7″ and subdivide this into 25 little squares: 5 across and 5 down. Mark the middle square "FREE." Now over the 5 top-most squares print the letters B-I-N-G-O, one over each square as in the following diagram. If you are reviewing the numerals 1 to 100, have each pupil write in

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foreign language words any 5 numerals from 1 to 20 under letter B; 21-40 under letter I; 41-60 under N, 61-80 under G, 81-100 under O, thus:

B	I	N	G	O
2	23	41	65	84
7	28	44	69	89
16	30	FREE	71	90
18	35	56	77	95
20	37	60	79	100

The teacher will need a number sheet containing all the numbers arranged in five columns corresponding to the above scheme. When you are ready to play, have pupils exchange Bingo sheets. Now call off in the foreign language any number with its accompanying designation, such as B-7, or N-56, etc. Check each number on your master sheet as you call it. At the same time, each pupil having that number checks or covers it on his own sheet. When he has checked any five numbers in a row, horizontally, vertically or diagonally, he calls "BINGO" and he reads back to you in the foreign language each of his winning numbers translating each word while you check from your own sheet. Insist on accurate pronunciation. As a prize, he may win a "10."

This ends one game. It is advisable to spend the last ten minutes of the period in this way, playing as many games as the time permits. If you wish to review vocabulary or idioms, proceed in the same way, substituting words in the foreign language for the numerals. When the pupil calls back his words, he must give not only the correct words (with the article if any) but the correct pronunciation and translation. If you like, you may have the English on the cards inserted. Synonyms or antonyms should be arranged in two columns in advance. Then decide on one of these columns for the Bingo card. A resourceful teacher may find other variations and uses of this device.

JOSEPH A. CORSO.
James Madison High School.

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND NOTES

WIDELY USED JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL READING LIST IS REVISED

School principals, teachers of grades seven, eight, and nine, and librarians, will be interested in the announcement that the junior high school reading list published by the National Council of Teachers of English, *Leisure Reading*, has been entirely revised and brought up to date. The editing has been done by the Council's Recreational Reading Committee, whose chairmen are Dr. Stella S. Center, head of the English department of Theodore Roosevelt High School, New York City, and Max J. Herzberg, principal of the Weequahic High School, Newark, N. J.

A new arrangement of material makes the list more readily usable than before. The annotations have been rewritten to give them a decided appeal to the young person. Perennial favorites like the Alcott books remain in the list, but books no longer popular with pupils have been supplanted by newer titles of more vital interest today. New classifications include The Animal Kingdom, Discovery and Exploration, Etiquette, Games and Sports, Handicrafts, Hobbies, and Photography. A new cover and illustrations in black and white and color make the list as attractive as the Council's other lists, *Home Reading* for high school and *Reading for Fun* for the elementary grades.

Leisure Reading may be obtained from the National Council of Teachers of English, 211 West 68th Street, Chicago, at twenty cents for a single copy, fifteen cents each for ten or more copies.

EXHIBIT OF INTERNATIONAL PEACE SYMBOLS

An educational exhibit of international Peace Symbols has been prepared by the Women's International League, National Literature Department, Philadelphia, Pa., for the use of junior and senior high schools.

This exhibit, consisting of a series of large photographs, was originally prepared by Miss Zonia Baber, Associate Professor Emeritus in the University of Chicago, for an article in the "Chicago Schools Journal." Now they have been made available in individual picture form with complete description. Twenty-four pictures are put in cellophane envelopes in a loose-leaf, stiff-covered book so that they can be readily packed and shipped. Each leaf can be taken out and hung up on a bulletin board for exhibition purposes. The pictures include such colorful objects as the International Postal Union monument at Berne, Switzerland; International Peace Garden, Manitoba, North Dakota; Good Will monument on the Mexico City-Laredo Highway; Christ of the Andes; Peace Plow made in Philadelphia for the Centennial Exposition—now in the Alabama Room, Geneva, Switzerland; and the International Flower Garden, La Plata, Argentine.

This exhibit is shipped express collect for $1.00 and may be kept for two weeks.

ENGLISH TEACHERS ADVISED TO GET EXPERIENCE IN OTHER JOBS

The most important thing for English teachers to do as part of their preparation is to get a job or jobs in some entirely different field for a year or more, Dr. Malcolm MacLean, director of General College, University of Minnesota, said at the convention of the National

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Council of Teachers of English, held in St. Louis November 24-26, 1938.

"English teachers more than most should have an experience of life outside their jobs," he said, "because it is their task to interpret all the many aspects of human life as seen through the eyes of writers. We English teachers tend to spend twelve years in school, transfer immediately to college or university, go from that into graduate school, and thence directly into teaching. In consequence, an abnormally large proportion of our lives is devoted to vicarious experiences instead of real. Little wonder that our teaching of literature is unreal, distorted, and perhaps fantastically so.

"Many of us form the bad habit of herding primarily with other English teachers. At faculty meetings, because there are so many of us and because we speak with some facility, we often tend to dominate other faculties. The breaking of this habit means the smashing of the clique spirit, and the continuous drive to come to know, to work with, and to understand teachers in other fields, as well as men and women in other occupations." Finally, Dr. MacLean said, teachers should maintain an attitude of experimentation and should learn new ways to evaluate their teaching.

Another standard for English teachers was held up at the meeting by Miss Mellie John of the Rockford (Illinois) High School. "Every teacher of English," she said, "should be able to express himself creatively in prose or verse, in dance or song, in gardening or parenthood, in paint or pithy phrase; but those who attempt to lead others to such expression in any phase of composition must not only have the lift of originality but also the appreciation and power of stimulation that produces results from their pupils."

REVIEWS

NEW YORK: AN AMERICAN CITY 1783-1803—A STUDY OF URBAN LIFE

By Sidney I. Pomerantz, Columbia University Press, 1938.

This is the story of the growth of the City of New York from the evacuation of the war-ridden town by the British troops in 1793 to the turn of the century when New York had risen to first place amongst the cities of the country in population and commerce, had become a powerful factor in determining the political destinies of state and nation, and was making a strong bid for leadership as a center of American cultural life.

The New York World's Fair, commemorating as it does the inauguration of Washington in New York City, makes the publication of this book especially timely. Reading it will help us to appreciate with more understanding the century and a half of progress that has intervened. Dr. Pomerantz has made it easier for New York City teachers to make alive and concrete to their students the manifold changes that New York City has witnessed.

The author has made it possible for us to go a long way toward correcting that oft-lamented ignorance of our early civic history. This volume has the unusual merit of combining painstaking and accurate scholarship with a lively style and a wealth of such intensely interesting detail about our city that every New Yorker must be grateful. Undoubtedly, a great deal of the human interest that lies in this story of the Post-Revolutionary Era is derived from the fact that Dr. Pomerantz has devoted about half of his book to what is usually termed "social history."

Throughout the book, an attempt is made to show how, during the two decades under consideration, the foundations were being laid for the future growth of the city. For part of the period New York City served as the capital of both the state and national governments. A great step forward was then taken toward the establishment of universal manhood suffrage, restrictions on Catholics and Quakers were removed, and the Tammany Society by 1794, largely because it embraced [illegible] cause of the French Revolution, was definitely changing from a patriotic benevolent organization to a partisan political group.

There were then, as now, the professional Viewers - with - Alarm. Commenting on the recent broadening of the suffrage, the Evening Post for November 22, 1804 mournfully observed: "The truth is, Democracy and Jeffersonianism reign triumphant throughout the land, and men of character, of sense, and of property, have nothing left but to sit down and let the torrent rage."

New York was also emerging as a city ready to take an active part, by either public or private means, in the work of improving the lot of the less fortunate of its citizens. Corporal punishment was abandoned in 1796 and the death sentence was limited to three crimes; in the same year a board of Health Office commissioners was established; in 1794 Bellevue Hospital was opened; the Humane Society was founded; and finally, the first newspapers in New York dedicated to social betterment made their appearance. Indeed, so strong was the social ferment that local elections were more than once enlivened by frank appeals to class.

Independence brought, also, unprecedented cultural changes in New York. For the first time, the Anglican Church gave up its favored position in favor of equality for all religious groups. A host of

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learned societies appeared; scientific periodicals were established; and the first legislation by which the state definitely assumed responsibility for education was enacted in 1795. New York's first museum was opened. In our city, the nation's first zoological garden became a reality. The growing interest in music, the stage, and art is amply demonstrated by Dr. Pomerantz's chapter entitled, "The Lighter Side of Urban Living."

Throughout, the text is made colorful by choice bits of contemporary writings culled from newspapers, records, letters, diaries, and other primary sources.

SAMUEL H. HALPERIN.
Bronx High School of Science.

SUPERVISION

By A. S. Barr, W. H. Burton, L. S. Brueckner. Appleton - Century, $4.00.

This book is not to be confused with the older "Barr and Burton," for many years a sort of classic in supervision, nor regarded as a fresh edition of it. It is an entirely new work, perhaps the most up-to-date and comprehensive that has thus far appeared. It has exhaustive lists of tests, charts, statistical data of the most recent compilation. It offers an abundance of techniques and devices, but always with emphasis on their underlying principles; slavish imitation is discouraged, creative application emphasized. Bibliographies, appended to each chapter, are voluminous and contemporary. Though a new text is hardly a novelty in this well-tilled field, this one deserves the wide audience the reputation of its authors will no doubt win for it.

The function of the book, and the philosophy that informs it, are clearly stated at the outset. In the words of the authors:

"The theory and practice of supervision have been for some time in need of revitalization. Few new ideas seem to have emerged recently, while practice has settled, in the main, into routine paths . . . Nevertheless, supervision has inevitably been affected by current thought and changes in the science of education, the organismic view in psychology . . ."

"The writers of this volume have made an earnest effort to present a new definition of supervision in keeping with the new problems . . . It is their view that the aim, the principles, and the procedures of supervision are not fixed, final, nor prescriptive but emergent, experimental, and tentative . . . Coöperation and leadership are everywhere substituted for authority and prescription of procedures . . ."

The basic concept that modern supervision must be democratic is implicit in every line of the book. The authors emphasize that democracy is a way of life, under which men coöperate for the common good. Differences are resolved by free discussion; the will of the majority prevails, and is executed by officers of their own choosing, who possess delegated powers and are responsible to their electors.

This is a familiar pattern in the political life of our country, but not all readers will agree that it properly describes current supervisory practice. The supervisor is not chosen by the subordinates he governs; nor does he derive his delegated powers from them. Such latitude of discussion and independent action as he grants them, he grants because he wishes to, not because he must. He may withdraw it at any time—in fact, he must, when their opinions clash too violently with his own. Since the ultimate responsibility is his, so must be the ultimate decision.

A new system of supervision is now in operation in the municipal colleges of New York City. Under it, the chairman of a department is chosen by its members for a term of years. He owes his position to his subordinates; he governs them with their consent, under regulations of their own making. He is subject to recall, or to a defeat when his term expires. This is democratic supervision, with its foundation in law, rather than in the whim of the supervisor.

The "new definition of supervision" which the authors present is the broadest possible one. It divides the field into three major functions: studying the teaching-learning situation; improving the teaching-learning situation; evaluating the means, methods and outcomes of supervision. Within their limits, all aspects of education from philosophic principles to minutiae of practice are appropriately grouped. Thus is emphasized the improvement of the "total teacher-learning process" rather than the mere improvement of teaching.

Each of these major functions in turn is employed as the title and subject of a section of the book—an arrangement of materials that focuses attention on the scientific character of supervision at its best. For if improvement is to be effected, the supervisor must study existing conditions; plan and execute a program of reform; evaluate the results obtained. And this evaluation, in its turn becomes the starting point of a fresh program in the unending cycle.

Unfortunately this organization of topics impairs the usefulness of the volume as a book of reference. A complete treatment of any single topic, curriculum making, for example, or testing, can be found only by searching through various sections of the book. And even then the view obtained is far from satisfactory; for the several passages must be detached from their context, and lack, therefore, the desired integration. Under such circumstances the index (ten pages long, to serve a volume of nearly a thousand pages) is practically valueless.

ALFRED P. HAAS.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

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REFLECTION OF TEACHER ATTITUDES IN THE ATTITUDES OF THEIR PUPILS

By A. J. Manske. Teachers College, Columbia.

Occasionally a doctoral thesis comes our way and reanimates our drooping spirits and sagging faith in the soundness and sanity of educational research. Such an event is this new and exhilarating work of Dr. Manske's, which says something important and says it well. Here, if not in definitive form, are some highly provocative and illuminating findings on the degree to which teachers' attitudes affect pupils' attitudes.

Dr. Manske used class discussion of the negro question as a basic problem to discover how pupils reacted to various kinds of teachers. He discovered (and this is worth a deal of pondering):

1. That male and female teachers are equally effective in indoctrinating pupils.

2. That those teachers who believe in indoctrination most firmly tend to induce greater conformity among pupils.

3. That regardless of the teachers' beliefs, a class room consideration of the problem tends to promote liberalism among pupils.

4. That socio-economic status, chronological age, I. Q. are not significantly related to change in attitude.

5. That teachers rarely influence pupil attitudes.

We are not certain where all of these facts lead ultimately. But they do raise some potent challenges, if true. To our rankly empirical senses, it seems just a bit doubtful that teachers rarely influence pupil attitudes. The right teacher, the right pupil and the right curriculum and you can move mountains. And what was it that someone remarked about Mark Hopkins on one end of a log and the pupil on the other? We aren't just pooh-poohing irreverently at Dr. Manske's conclusion. We're just skeptical. Unscientifically, we know otherwise, from our own experiences. Not that such flimsy evidence makes or invalidates general laws. But it certainly does cause us to gag at something that runs so grossly counter to what we have experienced.

What, to us, seems of prime importance in this study is the discovery that marked liberalism grows out of mere discussion of the problem. That is fraught with many vital significations for our daily practice. It reduces our faith in democratic processes to statistical certitude and confirms our deepest convictions concerning the democratic way in education. It lends objective support to our mystical clinging to the ideal that truth will conquer where men are free. In its own humble way, it adds its little voice to the growing conviction throughout our land that free and frank discussion of all of our problems, both in and out of class, will insure for us the blessings we have fought so hard to cherish, will fortify us against the corrosions of those persuasive toxins which have infected almost all of Europe.

Thanks to Dr. Manske for an honest, courageous, and necessary study.

A. H. Lass.

HOW TO READ FICTION

By Gordon H. Gerould, Princeton University Press. $1.50.

The Professional Dulcy is going to find this volume very, very absorbing indeed. Others who have grown bloated on "how to do" books won't be quite ravished by this one. For Dr. Gerould is a master of the pleasant platitude, and this little treatise abounds in them. It is filled with light and not too profound talk on the real and the unreal in fiction, forms and ideas, the relationships of reader and book, propaganda in fiction, the need for a willing suspension of disbelief, the planes of reality on which characters exist, and a host of other hardy perennials. On all of these, Dr. Gerould touches deftly, smartly, entertainingly but never profoundly. Dr. Gerould's theses has been more expertly and more deeply probed elsewhere. But we have not often seen them so chattily and, at times, so wittily discoursed upon. Whatever other sins he may have committed, Dr. Gerould is never guilty of dullness. The reader who has not read too much about books already will find the informal commonplaces of this volume refreshing. Short and convincing, it does manage to reveal the rich and variegated experiences that an intelligent reading of fiction will yield.

A. H. L.

A SOUTHERN TREASURY OF LIFE AND LITERATURE

By Stark Young. Scribner's, $1.48.

Most anthologies are frankly, unashamedly, and perhaps unavoidably personal. The inescapable necessity for a choice of some kind makes it so, no matter how objective may be the anthologist's primary intent. But this anthology of Stark Young's is something more than a parade of subjective and cultured preferences. It is more, too, than "geographical and spiritual sectionalism." It is axe-grinding of a not particularly effective sort. For Mr. Stark is eager to present not only a panorama of the South's achievements in literature, but he is also an apologist for the essentially second-rate character of much of its contributions.

Mr. Stark grants that the old South did not produce great literature. But, he asks, since when was literary creation a dominant function of society? Great patterns of life—these are the ends of social endeavor. But even this evasion does not stand up under close scrutiny. For not only was the old South esthetically effete, but its literature failed to reflect with any moving fidelity a Weltanschauung that could by any stretch be called great or ennobling. It is hard, furthermore, to see how any society

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rooted in and dominated by the notion that slavery was an inherent part of the universal will, could give expression to that tragic dignity of man which is the hall mark of any literature of merit.

In spite of its weak and patently apologetic leit-motif, this collection makes interesting and exciting reading. Certainly the literature of our South from William Byrd to Allen Tate is hardly negligible even if it does not include such Titans as Emerson, Thoreau and Whitman. It has its own peculiar force and flavor. These Mr. Stark has captured in his anthology.

We cannot help commenting on what seems to us some rather weird, injudicious, and unrepresentative selections. Erskine Caldwell is represented only by "Molly Cotton-Tail"; William Faulkner by "Spotted Horses." So fragmentary a culling from the works of these two major moderns would seem to indicate that caprice, impulse, or prejudice guided the choice rather than any attempt to present some even partially rounded view of their undisputed significance in modern letters.

A. H. L.

DIRECTING STUDY ACTIVITIES IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

By W. G. Brink. Doubleday-Doran, $3.00.

This is a basal text for a general methods course centered around the notion that the school must make its pupils self-directing, self-initiating and self-reliant. The teacher is conceived as a director of study, and as such, must possess an intimate knowledge of both the teaching and learning process if he is to discharge his functions with the éclat that society expects of him.

Part I of this volume deals fully and concretely with the illustration and application of the principles underlying this whole mysterious matter we call learning. Part II treats more specifically with ways and means of integrating the whole instructional program around educational guidance in such matters as motivation of the assignment, reading activities, use of the library, and so forth. There is much valuable material here for teachers in the special fields, indicating at great length how they can best guide student activities.

This is a valuable manual devoid of stuffiness and pretension, realistic in outlook, acutely aware of the difficulties of the classroom teacher in attempting to be guide, model, and inspiration in one. This much can be said of it: it does show specifically *how* techniques can be taught and objectives attained, a rare quality in any *vade mecum*, and particularly in a pedagogical one.

A. H. L.

AN INTRODUCTION TO CHILD STUDY

By Ruth Strang. Macmillan, $3.00.

Most of us who teach adolescents know only adolescents, if we know them. The periods, very crucial in nature, preceding the trying one that confronts us, are in the main rather misty and uncertain to us. In a general sort of way, we are aware that the individual, sometimes gently, sometimes not so gently, proceeds from infancy to childhood, to pre-pubescence to adolescence. But the exact nature of the various changes we do not perceive with any marked clarity or vividness. In other words, we do not see the whole individual as a psychologically evolving entity still in a formative state.

It is as a corrective to this partial view that Dr. Strang's book is directed. In it, we get a broad general picture of the psychic evolution of the personality and all the changes concomitant upon passage from one state to another. Simply written, not too heavily loaded with figures and foot notes, this volume makes a practical contribution to the teacher's understanding of the adolescent.

We commend this volume to you. It really demonstrates the child in process of becoming father to the man. Wordsworth wouldn't have liked it. But then he never had the job of understanding two hundred pupils each day and individualizing each recitation for each pupil in terms of his past, present, and future needs, capacities, and desires. Our advice is to stick to Dr. Strang. She has her feet on the ground and she gives us an intelligible if unpoetical picture of the child.

A. H. L.

TRAITS CHARACTERISTIC OF MEN MAJORING IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

By N. S. Walke. Teachers College, Columbia.

Dr. Walke, obviously, has never read Dale Carnegie. Or if he has, he certainly reveals no particularly fervent desire to make friends with men majoring in physical education. Emphatically, nobody is going to like Dr. Walke very much when the findings of his study become widely current. Physical education majors, in particular, will feel little affection for him, for Dr. Walke soberly and scientifically (he thinks) has some highly unflattering and a few insignificantly kind things to say about them.

Measured by the De Camp Intelligence test, physical education majors are markedly inferior to those interested in other fields of teaching. Their scholastic records are "hopelessly low." As might be reasonably expected (no condescension here), they are taller and stronger than most of their pedagogical brethren. They also are much healthier as a group and, according to the Bernreuter Personality Inventory, rank higher in

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emotional stability and dominance. They are much more aggressive leaders in extra-curricular activities.

But there is a catch to all this. Only 145 physical education majors composed the group compared with the other groups. Dr. Walke will be laughed out of court for having brought his ideas to the market in the green ear. For whatever merit his findings or recommendations may have, is definitely not inherent in the nature or extent of material surveyed. It all may be very, very true. But many, too many for Dr. Walke's comfort, are going to entertain very serious doubts as to the ultimate validity of these generalizations based on such astonishingly anemic data.

A. H. L.

THE ACTIVITY PROGRAM

By A. Gordon Melvin and Reynal Hitchcock.

Dr. Melvin has here given us a colorful and dramatic statement of the much discussed activity program, its basic philosophy, objectives, and achievements. Such a discussion has long been needed to clarify the activity program and the place it occupies in the modern educational scheme. Most people do not think on this matter. They merely "feel" and call names. Or what is just as bad, they merely feel and compose meaningless dithyrambs on the sacrosanctity of the child, and the unique form of educational salvation to be found in "activity." It is a pleasure to come upon this lucidly reasoned and coolly practical demonstration of what the activity program really is and limitations inherent in its very nature and application.

The teacher can get a really balanced picture here of the program in action in various quarters of the country. Practical, earthy projects, model curricula, concrete, workable procedures, are suggested in programs of activities. All these make this volume a very substantial contribution to the field.

The battle for the activity program is won. There can be little doubt of that. The country by and large is committed wholeheartedly, though not always intelligently, to its fundamental precepts. What is needed now is a word of caution against those dangers of "static complacency" and wild-eyed experimentalism that have neither direction nor justification. What was begun as a protest against curricular rigidity and regimentation must not be allowed to harden into the very kind of unyielding dogmas which it has so valiantly fought. The program, as Dr. Melvin indicates, must grow but it must maintain a fine balance between stability and change. Wrightstone's by now classic studies have demonstrated beyond a doubt that pupils in an activity program equal or excel those subjected to the traditional procedures in mastery of the fundamental processes. In addition, they acquire a series of concomitant skills and attitudes that spell the difference between the truly educated, fully adjusted individual and the merely literate one. Certainly, the traditional curriculum produced pupils who knew the three R's. But as human beings fit to cope with the complexities of civilized living, they were decidedly handicapped, their growth stultified. The activity program attempts and succeeds, when properly planned and administered, in making the child whole, in integrating him with his environment.

There is thus no quarrel anywhere with the activity program per se. The quarrel is actually with rabid administration, addled teachers, fragmentary, half baked curricula. To those who need the restraining hand, Dr. Melvin's book is bound to prove a valuable influence. A reading of Dr. Melvin's quiet analyses and sound recommendations will do much to counteract the frothings of those who still think of every activity program as Bedlam and of every activist as either a visionary, infidel, or ignoramus.

A. H. L.

NEW YORK PANORAMA

Sponsored by the Guilds Committee for Federal Writers' Publications, Inc. Random House, $2.50.

"A history and account of every phase of present-day life in the world's greatest metropolis." And it is just exactly this, dramatically and vividly illustrated with 100 excellent photographs. New York City has never before been so carefully, so accurately, and so compellingly covered in all its heights and depths, its cruel and brazen contrasts.

Teachers of English and the social studies will find this a veritable mine of useful and provocative information. It is crammed to the hilt with material that is vital grist for the pedagogical mill. It poses a host of problems social, economic, cultural, and esthetic. We cannot think of any one volume that provides more fresh and realistic possibilities for bringing the curriculum into closer alignment with the lives of our pupils than *New York Panorama*. It ought to be in every teacher's hands. Intended merely as a guide book, it nevertheless serves as one of the most valuable pedagogical aids that has come our way in some time.

A. H. L.

BOOK NOTES

(Mention under this head does not preclude review elsewhere)

A HISTORY OF GREEK PLAY PRODUCTION IN AMERICAN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES FROM 1881-1936. *By Domis E. Plugge.* Teachers College, Columbia.

This exotic piece of research is for antiquarians old and young. There is some nice grubbing around in things that don't seem to matter very much but somewhere someone ought to be interested in Dr. Plugge's archaeological results. There is a world of patience and devotion in this dissertation that is quite moving.

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INTRODUCTION TO MODERN VIEWS OF EDUCATION. *By W. A. Saucier.* Ginn.

This text aims to help students formulate an educational philosophy consistent with the latest findings of modern biology and the social sciences. Distinctly pragmatic and progressive in tone and outlook. Not an eclectic approach. Definitely partisan and hence systematically organized with a view to luring the student to a specific point of view instead of exposing him to as many views as possible and leaving his judgment free to function. There are obvious objections to such an introductory text, but, at least it does avoid the besetting sin of most texts—dullness.

TOLD OUT OF SCHOOL. *By A. B. Shifrin.* Little, Brown.

Like most novels about school and teachers, this one fails to come off. An air of oppressive unreality clings rather heavily about it. Outsiders will easily mistake this for what school is really like. There's nothing we can do about it now except to warn you off; that is, unless you enjoy the obviously sentimental, the trite, and and the simulacrum of reality. Distinctly a "poor buy" and heartily "not recommended."

THE INFLUENCE OF THE P.W.A. ON SCHOOL BUILDING CONSTRUCTION IN NEW YORK STATE 1933-1936. *By H. T. Herber.* Teachers College. Columbia. $1.60.

Analyzes the effect of P.W.A. aid upon "the quality of school building construction, the functional set-up of school buildings, and the construction of additional school facilities." This is the kind of educational caviar not intended for poor fellows like us. Administrators and school officials may find something of profit in it.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN CATHOLIC SECONDARY EDUCATION. *By Sister M. Teresa Gertrude Murray, O.S.B.* Teachers College, Columbia.

A detailed and thoroughgoing analysis of vocational guidance activities in Catholic secondary schools throughout the country. Pictures present weaknesses and strong points in the various programs and lists recommendations for widening the scope and improving the quality of this very vital phase of education. A sound and respectable study fully buttressed with facts and figures. A highly valuable contribution to its field.

WHAT ABOUT SURVEY COURSES? *Edited by B. L. Johnson.* Holt.

Dr. Johnson surveys the fast-growing and almost permanently intrenched survey course. He and his contributing specialists treat this movement in great detail touching upon its history, development, present needs and status in the colleges, difficulties in the way of organization and administration. Survey courses from various sections of the country are analyzed. There are separate chapters on survey courses in the junior, senior, and teachers, colleges, in the natural and social sciences, and in the humanities. The integrated and composite survey courses are dealt with too. These are recent in origin. There is a final chapter on evaluation of the efficacy of the survey course. It is good to see the experts racking their brains to produce something worthwhile for us. We would never have imagined, judging from the nature of most survey courses, that so much bitter travail had gone into their making. We know better now even if we don't feel any happier about the harrowing nature of most of the survey courses we have taken, willy-nilly.

THE CHANGING CURRICULUM. *By The Joint Committee on Curriculum.* Henry Harap, Chairman. D. Appleton-Century.

For those who want to know what is taking place in the various curricular smithies throughout the country, this volume is an indispensable guide. It is a solid and authoritative survey of the dominant curricular trends of our time. It supplies, in addition, many valuable suggestions on organization, planning, and evaluation of the curriculum. Its point of view leans heavily toward the child-centered, socially oriented school, as indeed, do most of the outstanding curricula here analyzed.

A. H. L.

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EDUCATION: THE GREEKS HAD A TECHNIQUE FOR IT

By JOHN ERSKINE

(Reprinted by Permission from The New York Times Magazine, January 29, 1939).

In our schools and colleges the stress laid upon athletics has long troubled the teachers of other subjects. With good reason educators worry about competitive sport. We regret the disappearance of the strict amateur, whatever an amateur may be, and we fear there is an essential evil in the profit which institutions of learning make, directly and indirectly, from the games.

Yet educators might well ask if there is not a profound reason why American students are devoted to athletics—a strictly educational reason which has nothing to do with finance or with the definition of the amateur. The educator may well ask whether athletics is not the only subject in the curriculum which is properly taught. The subjects which approach it in the genuine satisfactions they give are taught in approximately the same way. The teacher of any subject, even though he is a sworn enemy of what he calls the athletic craze, may well hope that that craze will continue in full vigor until all the other subjects are taught by the same system.

We still teach athletics as the Greeks did, for use. If we think of the Greeks as traditional folk whose day was past long ago, and who are remembered now only in academic tradition, it is perhaps a good thing to illustrate their vital wisdom in this physical field, where we cannot be dismissed as academic or bookish. The Greeks held athletics even more highly than we do. The Olympian games were more nearly a religious ceremony than even football contests are with us, and the blight of commercialism, so far as we know, was absent. But they believed that other subjects also were of vital importance, and they taught them all so that study would result in an able performance.

St. Paul, who had been educated in the Greek way, used the Olympian games as a metaphor of life itself. The Greek boy was taught how to run a race, and immediately he went out and ran.

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His teachers assigned him no marks for his class work: life would give him his marks. He won the race or he lost it, and in either case he ran again.

Here is the ancient glory of athletics which survives the blights of our day. Our boys and girls are conscious of it, though they may not stop to define what enlists their admiration. When they are taught to swim they expect at once to swim. They don't want 95 per cent in swimming; they'll be satisfied only if they don't sink. The boy who is taught tennis, football or baseball wants to play. He is glad to risk a licking, because even though temporarily defeated he hopes eventually to win.

The Greeks and St. Paul thought the athletic attitude was the right attitude toward life. What better can we suggest after all these centuries? And in what other subjects —here is the mortifying question —do we impart this attitude?

Let me guard against a misunderstanding. When I express admiration for the practical education which the Greeks imparted I do not mean that only those subjects should be taught which we nowadays call practical, nor that we should omit what for us are the cultural subjects. I merely wish we, like the Greeks, taught every subject so that we could use it in life. The ideal of culture which considers a subject valuable because it is useless seems tragically absurd. We are here to live; education should teach us how. There is no time to waste.

If we have a false idea of culture there is a historical explanation for it. The Greek boy studied all his subjects so that he could use them. The Romans later invented the sideline ideal of culture, and what they—and we after them—call liberal studies. Rome conquered Greece, and had a good supply of Greek slaves. These slaves had been trained in the arts and sciences. The Roman relied on the Greek slaves for his architecture, his mathematics, his sculpture, his poetry. For himself he developed a scheme of education which he called liberal—that is, a training suitable to a free man who owned slaves, and therefore expected to do no work. The appreciation of other men's work was what the Roman called culture. He became a good judge of athletics; that is, he was master of no sport himself, but he attended the arena, where the slaves took the exercise for him, and he liked to bet on the games.

In the Renaissance men like Francis Bacon helped to restore the sciences to their Greek condition. Though we do not yet teach the sciences perfectly, they are the group of subjects which in our schools are taught most nearly, after athletics, in the Greek way. No wonder the sciences fascinate the young. When you make an experiment in the chemistry laboratory you get a result. You acquire some knowledge which is immediately available for life. You make the experiment yourself. If the teacher insists on making it for you in your presence you must forgive him: he is temporarily overtaken by the Roman idea of culture. He imagines that he is the performing Greek slave and that you are the liberal Roman gentleman accumulating culture by looking on.

There is today a new tendency back to the Greek way of teaching, but as yet it shows itself chiefly in the addition to the curriculum of courses in what we call specifically the arts. Our schools now give training in music, a practical training which ends in performance—in many cases, in very good performance. Here and there the schools teach dancing. In almost every well equipped school and college the teaching of drama is at least supplemented by the actual performance of plays.

But after we have recognized the great progress in scientific education, and have saluted the recent return of the arts, what shall we say of the remaining subjects? Are they arts or sciences? I refer to the courses in languages, in English, in history, in philosophy, in economics, in the so-called social sciences. I am quite sure that all these subjects are of great importance, but I am equally certain that a Greek, if he could see how we teach them, would think us crazy. They supply no technique for living, and we don't expect them to. They are supposed to supply the Roman kind of culture.

The teaching of languages is the particular sore thumb in our so-called "cultural" scheme of education. Latin and Greek are taught, if at all, for cultural reasons. I have heard that the study of Greek will aid you toward clarity of thought and will improve your style. For Greek and Latin both I have heard the argument that without a knowledge of them you won't know the etymology of many English words. This is all true, of course, but I am unregenerate enough to think that the purpose in studying any language is to speak it and read it. I know from experience that you cannot read a language unless you can speak it. I know that our students are not taught to speak Latin or Greek. I am therefore not surprised that they can read neither language. This seems a pity, because the majority of the great books which have influenced our civilization were written in one language or the other.

If you don't want to know Latin and Greek, I shan't quarrel with you, but you ought to be content with your natural ignorance of those languages and not cement that ignorance, for cultural purposes, by studying Greek and Latin the wrong way.

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I'd say the same thing with even greater vigor of the modern languages. You might doubt my word if I assured you that Latin and Greek can be taught so that in a very short time they can be spoken, but in the case of the modern languages that truth is constantly demonstrated under our eyes. Immigrants with no schooling at all learn quickly to speak our language. We, on the other hand, give five or six years to the study of their language in school or college without acquiring the ability to express ourselves in it. Europeans more highly educated than some immigrants astound us by their command of several languages. They shame us by what seems their superior intellectual capacity. I think we ought to be ashamed, but not because of any incurable inferiority. The difference between us and the European is that, since the countries over there are small and close together, he frequently hears a foreign language, and he studies all foreign languages with the Greek purpose of using them.

Again, if you say that in the United States a knowledge of French and German is not necessary, and therefore you don't care whether your child can speak anything but English, I shan't argue with you, though I think you are wrong, but if a practical knowledge of French and German is not needed, why waste time in pretending to study those languages? Do you say, for the cultural result? I refuse to believe there is any cultural benefit from ignorance. Men and women who can speak several languages often show a self-confidence which is cultural, but those who have studied languages without mastering them are horribly embarrassed when in life some need of those languages comes up.

That we should insist on teaching languages the wrong way is all the more astonishing because the wrong way costs more than the right, and it takes a much longer time. The wrong way starts the pupil off with rules of grammar and with rules of pronunciation. Only a singularly mature and philosophical mind can get anything out of grammar in the abstract, unattached to a language, and how you can learn with profit the rules of pronunciation before you know any words to pronounce I cannot imagine.

I went through the agony myself in my school days—with the exception of one language, to which I shall refer again. I learned grammatical rules, and of course forgot them later. I learned how to pronounce vowels and consonants, but I did not at first acquire a vocabulary. For several years—that is, through school and college—I wasted hours in translation, perverting the text word by word with what I could ladle out of the dictionary. Only with difficulty did I resist the impression that every foreign language was a translation of my own.

When languages are properly taught, as on the Continent of Europe and in some rare places here, the student learns first the language—that is, the sound and meaning of the words. He hears nothing but the language he is trying to learn. In his first lesson he and his classmates master ten or a dozen important words. By dint of immediate practice they learn to pronounce the words and to write them. In the next lesson they repeat these words, and master ten or a dozen more. After a hundred lessons they have at their command over a thousand words, and since the words are scientifically selected for their usefulness, the pupils are ready to carry on a conversation.

Of course their grammar is not perfect, and they have many more words to learn, but they have the comfort of remembering that in their infancy they acquired words first and grammar later. The grammar comes naturally if you use the language with people who speak it well. If you don't use it, the grammar never comes at all.

After you have learned to speak the language in the first year of study, you should give at least another year to its literature. Under this system the student in the second year will really be able to read—put his feet up, lean back in a comfortable chair, and enjoy the book.

Two years for a practical command of a language! Ten years are sometimes needed for our method of acquiring culture while preserving our ignorance. I have had experience with both methods. I studied French in the American way from school days to the close of my graduate years, and when the government, at our entrance into the World War, asked me what I knew, I put French in the list. For that fib I was sent to the French Army. During the first two or three weeks I had an uninterrupted headache. When I woke at dawn, I got up, not to the war but to the language. But suddenly the fog cleared and I knew what the French were talking about. Why not? After my decades of school I had at last had a chance to hear the language spoken and to speak it myself.

I have another and happier memory. I was taught Greek by a man who thought Greek was a language. Little Greek children had once prattled in it. Greek parents used it to joke and gossip, or to quarrel with the landlord. This singular teacher devoted part of each lesson to Greek conversation. When I went to college Greek words were easy for my tongue, and though for lack of practice I can no longer talk it, because I once could talk it I still can read it.

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No language is a dead language unless you kill it. We are rapidly killing English. In the English class we teach no one to speak—we hardly make the attempt. We teach the biography of authors and we repeat the accepted critical opinions, but we don't teach literature. We don't show the student how verse is written, or prose; we don't impart the technique of story-telling, or novel-writing, or play-making. If we pretend to do these things, we omit the one element which in life is essential; we forget the audience. Many a college graduate gets A in his English course, but few know how to catch and hold a reader's attention. If you can't do that, you don't know how to write. There is no mystery about it; a vigorous newspaper editor will knock it into your head in a few weeks. In the college writing course, however, the instructor did not expect you to become a writer. He probably wasn't a writer himself.

If you go far enough in your study of history you will find out at last what the historian is doing and how he does it, but in the earlier years you may get the impression that history is a reservoir of known fact, a faithful report of the past. But history is the most meticulous form of imaginative literature. The past is irrecoverable, and history is one long reinterpretation of meager vestiges. Our present theory of any ancient person or episode may be upset tomorrow by the finding of a manuscript or by the rifling of a grave. Did your history teacher drill you in the fascinating art of interpreting unstable and insufficient evidence?

There remain in our curriculum several subjects which I shan't name, but which you can guess. The stickler for the Roman ideal of culture will confound me by asking how their value could ever be tested in practical use. I shall answer by echoing the question, how indeed! At that point our philosophies take leave of each other. If a subject is so cultural that it can never go with us into life, I would reform it or throw it overboard. I'm no friend of classroom dialectic, not even when it hides under a good name and pretends to have a humane and social purpose. What is the marginal utility of a loaf of bread? How many angels can stand on the point of a needle? I decline to guess the answers, though needles are useful and I revere the angels.

FREEDOM OF SCIENCE IN A DEMOCRACY*

A Science Pupil Asks His Principal Some Pertinent Questions

PRINCIPAL: Well, Hugh, here we are before the microphone, celebrating Lincoln's Birthday in a new way—a way made possible by one of the great discoveries of science. Have you ever spoken over the radio before?

PUPIL: No, I never have; but it doesn't seem so difficult to talk into a mike.

PRINCIPAL: I am glad of that. But remember, there may be millions of people listening to us. I am sure that all your classmates and your teachers are anxious to hear your questions. I hope my answers will be satisfactory.

PUPIL: Well, in the first place, I am a bit puzzled by this combination of Lincoln's Birthday and the Freedom of Science. Lincoln was not a scientist.

PRINCIPAL: True. Abraham Lincoln's greatness was different from that of Newton's or of Pasteur's. But Lincoln gave something to his country and to all of mankind which the world today needs again, as it never did before. It needs freedom—freedom to live, to work and especially, freedom to think. If a scientist is not free to think, he might as well die.

PUPIL: I have always thought of a scientist as a man who works apart from other people, in the laboratory, where he learns about the forces of nature. Why should he bother with such things as government, tolerance and democracy? Doesn't that job belong to others?

PRINCIPAL: Some people think so, but thousands of scientists in this country and all over the world do not agree with that point of view. They have taken on the job of helping to spread tolerance and democracy, because without them, they soon lose their intellectual freedom. It is a matter of life or death.

PUPIL: I wish you would make that a little clearer to me, Dr. Meister. Why is it necessary for scientists to preach to the public?

PRINCIPAL: You see, scientists know that they can do their work only when men are allowed to think in freedom, to believe what their own experience proves, and to speak their minds freely to their fellow men. When the scientist puts a question to nature, the answer he gets through experiment cannot depend upon whether or not it agrees with the edicts of

*Dr. Morris Meister, Principal, Bronx High School of Science and Hugh Matthews, pupil at the Bronx High School of Science. Radio Broadcast, February 12, 1939, 11:45 a. m. to 12 m. over station WNYC under auspices Lincoln's Birthday Committee.

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a dictator. When he is compelled to prove what some leader demands, he must falsify facts. The moment he does so, he ceases to be a scientist. Therefore, true science can flourish only when civil liberties are protected and extended to all men by a truly democratic goverment.

PUPIL: That means, I suppose, that the tolerance of science is the same as the tolerance of democracy?

PRINCIPAL: Precisely, but also for another reason. The answers a scientist gets to the problems he explores in the laboratory never depend upon his race, his color, his religion, or his politics. Every time discrimination is permitted, science is weakened. A scientist cannot, therefore, tolerate intolerance or race hatred. Furthermore, the scientist can work best when he feels that his efforts will be fruitful, that the facts he discovers and the ideas he develops will make life better and more satisfying for mankind. In the Fascist dictatorships of today, all efforts are directed towards warlike purposes; science is used to produce military might and threats. This is an abuse of scientific knowledge. Science should be a method of controlling the forces of nature for the good of mankind. Using these forces to produce pain and death is not science. It is evil magic. That is why scientists must come out of their laboratories to preach peace, tolerance and intellectual freedom.

PUPIL: You said that scientists must have intellectual freedom and that they work to make life better and more satisfying for mankind. But why must they be concerned about democracy for other people who are not scientists?

PRINCIPAL: Scientists wish to insure freedom of inquiry and the socially useful applications of scientific progress; but they can never get these for themselves, alone, nor by their own efforts alone. They can possess intellectual freedom and racial and religious equality only when the whole community possesses these blessings. Only when their fellow citizens respect democracy and make it a living, growing part of community life, can they function properly as men of science.

PUPIL: Dr. Meister, you and the rest of the faculty at the High School of Science always speak to us as if we are scientists already. We know that it isn't quite true, but we like it just the same. Now, if we *are* scientists, what can *we* do about this great problem?

PRINCIPAL: You can do what all scientists can and should do. Learn like scientists. Work like scientists. Live like scientists. Base your conclusions upon evidence. Insist, always, upon facts and tested knowledge. Place your interest in truth above self-interest.

PUPIL: But what has happened to the German scientists, for example? They are *real* scientists, are they not?

PRINCIPAL: Yes, that is hard to understand. Perhaps they cannot help themselves. Things have gone too far. You see, when a community is impoverished and unhappy, it may be willing to surrender its liberties to dictators who promise a glib and unscientific solution to its troubles. Scientists then lose their freedom of inquiry as well. That it why we believe that it is the duty of scientists to be alert about the welfare, the health and the prosperity of their country. When people lose faith in reason, they are prey to prejudice and superstition. When they depend entirely upon authority, they yield to misinformation. They do not respect the freedom of science. Therefore, it is the business of scientists to educate men and women to know the facts and to think scientifically.

PUPIL: Yes, I see the importance of science for the nation, in a new way. To have real democracy, all men should be scientists.

PRINCIPAL: Yes, Democracy can be safe only when we approach our problems with the attitude of the scientist — discarding easy phrases, vague generalizations, hasty conclusions, and unfounded bias. Science must teach the citizen to hold all ideas as tentative, subject to revision when new facts appear. It must teach him to re-examine his ideas about life, as scientists are always re-examining and revising all their theories. It must teach the citizen to act when he has reached a decision based upon fact and reason—not on emotion.

PUPIL: You speak of the scientist as though he were a teacher. Can teachers and schools, such as ours, do anything to safeguard intellectual freedom of inquiry, tolerance, equality and freedom of speech?

PRINCIPAL: It is in school that our people can learn the democratic way of life. In school they can learn to understand their fellow citizens of different races, religions, and national origins, to work and to live with them as members of a joint democratic community. It is in school that students learn to let others present their points of view, to respect the opinions of others and to arrive at decisions after ideas have been tested in the democratic public forum. In our school, as you know, we try to teach you these attitudes with even greater earnestness than we apply to the teaching of the various subjects. We believe that we serve democracy best by training pupils to observe events in the world around them, by making them citizens who consider the affairs of the commonwealth their own affairs.

PUPIL: That is true of school in general. If science has so much to do with democracy, I should think that studying science might help, too. How does that work out?

PRINCIPAL: In the High School of Science, we make the study of science very important. We give a

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course in science every term, and every course has its special laboratory work which the pupil performs by himself. As you know, our pupils take all the subjects studied in the other high schools as well; but all subjects are related to the problems and attitudes of modern science. Furthermore science itself is related to the social studies. Thus, the social and historical effects of science and the social and historical causes of scientific progress are tied up with the study of the technique of science.

Our laboratory work, too, is important. Students in the High School of Science do not follow a cook book manual which orders their every step, and leads them to discover only what they have learned in advance from a book. We think that a laboratory should be a place where students put their own questions to nature, where they learn to find facts for themselves, where they gather evidence carefully and unemotionally, so that they may build a basis for conclusions. In that way, they learn how to disprove and reject erroneous beliefs.

PUPIL: It would seem, then, that we learn most about being tolerant, open-minded and democratic in the science classroom.

PRINCIPAL: In a way, yes, but the same scientific attitude is developed in other classes. In your study of English, Civics and History, the method of the Town Meeting is encouraged. Your teachers frown upon getting ideas and beliefs from authority only. You are encouraged not to depend solely upon books or teachers, *not to accept* the printed word uncritically, but to investigate every belief by referring back to sources, and, if possible, to the only final source—nature itself.

PUPIL: I have often noticed that even among my classmates at the High School of Science, there are some who have some certain prejudices. One fellow I know always "knocks wood," when he is afraid that something he doesn't like will happen. Another boy grew pale when he broke his mirror. And I can't get my best friend to walk under a ladder. Is this connected in any way with intellectual freedom and democracy?

PRINCIPAL: In a way, it is. If these friends of yours were scientifically-minded, they would examine their own prejudices and superstitions. They would ask themselves, what evidence there is that "knocking wood" helps to keep away misfortune. They would be willing to tempt fate by walking under a ladder. If they do not rid themselves of these unfounded beliefs, they can not form the habit of evaluating other beliefs critically. As citizens in a democracy, they must learn to vote intelligently, critically, with open-mindedness and without prejudice.

PUPIL: Dr. Meister, I think I now understand better a great many of the things we do at school. The other day, an English teacher brought the scientific method into our study of newspapers and magazines. Why, even in our spelling work, I observed that our teacher permitted us all to express differences of opinion. Then, we were all sent to the dictionary for evidence, before the question was settled. It made us feel important; but it also made us more tolerant of each other.

PRINCIPAL: Well, Hugh, I am glad that we have had this chance to talk about science, school, tolerance and democracy. We are living in pretty serious times. Never has our liberty been so threatened. I, as a teacher, and you, as a pupil, must do our share to keep our country safe for democracy. We can do it by glorifying the method of science—by having faith in reason, by preaching tolerance, by living the scientific way of life which is the democratic way of life. If Lincoln were alive today, he would be the first to join us in the fight for the freedom of science.

MORRIS MEISTER.
Bronx High School of Science.

A SCRIPT FOR A TOLERANCE PROGRAM

The following script was used in an assembly program given at Annex 192, of the New Utrecht High School, in order to spread tolerance among the students of our school. Although the program was given in connection with the 150th anniversary of the adoption of the Constitution of the United States, it may be produced for other occasions, —Washington's Birthday, in honor of Thomas Jefferson, and so forth.

This script, written in *March of Time* form, gives the history of America from the time of the early settlers to the adoption of the Bill of Rights. The program may be presented in as simple a manner as desired, or it may be elaborated to include all the talents a school may offer through the art, music, dramatic, and physical training departments. I might add that the idea of presenting a resolution at the very end of the program came from the students who took part in the performance.

The production calls for a cast of about fifteen boys and two girls, as follows:—

Commentator
James I of England
John Carver
William Penn
Governor of Maryland
Representative of Massachusetts Women's League
Maiden from Providence
Member of "Society of Sons of Liberty"
Lord Grenville
Messenger
Representative of the East India Company
Boston Merchant
Patrick Henry
Editor of "New York Gazette"
Thomas Paine
Thomas Jefferson
Farmer, Blacksmith, Barber, Freed Negro from the South, Indentured servant.
Representatives from Georgia, Maryland, New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland.

AMERICA, in the 1600's, a land to which the oppressed of Europe come . . . Puritans, Catholics, Presbyterians, Separatists, Independents . . . all those who do not conform to the established church of Eng-

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land. Both James I and Charles I hold rigidly to the theory of Divine Right of Kings, and consistently harass, persecute, threaten religious minorities . . . (Announce) LONDON, ENGLAND, 1601, James I addressing Parliament: (Music, "God Save the King").

"As it is atheism and blasphemy to dispute what GOD can do, so it is presumptuous and high contempt in a subject to dispute what a KING can do, or to say that a KING cannot do this or that . . . and for all those groups within my kingdom who do not heed to the royal call, I will *make* them conform, or I will *harry* them out of the land . . ."

At last the only recourse of the oppressed is to turn away from the Old World and cross the Atlantic. The Pilgrims first apply for a charter to go to the New World. Leaving their homelands forever, the Pilgrims sail away to discover and build for themselves a land where they may worship as they wish. And it is in America that the seeds of democracy are sown . . . where the idea of human rights, the theory of rule by the will of the majority, *first* takes root. (Announce) NOVEMBER 11, 1629, ON BOARD THE "MAYFLOWER" . . . JOHN CARVER reading the Compact ...(Music, Handel's "Hallelujah").

"We . . . the loyal subjects of our dread Sovereign Lord King James . . . solemnly and in the presence of God, combine ourselves together in a civil body Politick and . . . by virtue thereof, do enact such just and equal laws from time to time as shall be thought *most meet and convenient* for the *general Good* of the Colony . . ."

(Announce) APRIL 21, 1620 . . . MARYLAND . . . ACT OF TOLERATION is established. —

"And for the more quiet and peaceable government of this Province . . . Be it therefore enacted that no person whatever within this province shall henceforth in any way be troubled in respect of his or her religion . . ."

(Announce) 1701 WILLIAM PENN reads the Charter of Liberty to the people of Pennsylvania, —

"Because no people can be truly happy even under the greatest enjoyment of CIVIL liberties, if abridged of the freedom of their *conscience* as to their religious worship, I do hereby grant and declare . . . no person inhabiting in this province who shall confess One Almighty God, the Creator . . . and profess himself obliged to live quietly under Civil Government, shall in any way be molested . . ."

And, to the NEW WORLD, come not only the oppressed religious groups, but indentured servants, debtors taken from prisons in which they would have had to spend their lives, poverty stricken peasants driven off the lands . . . come to America to realize new hopes, new faiths, and newly found liberty . . . At last thirteen colonies are founded along the Atlantic Coast . . . Broad lands are tilled by farmers and frontiersmen who push their way westward . . . and in a short time there arises a young and vigorous American merchant class desiring above all else to be given the chance to develop the rich resources of the New World and convert these into goods the world will buy . . .

America in the early 1700's composed of thirteen colonies under the yoke of the mother country, England. England, exercising what she considers her right as the feudal superior of the colonies, places innumerable restricting monopolistic laws and burdening taxes on her colonies. The merchants are hindered at every turn by restricting laws; the farmers and frontiersmen are prevented by law from going West; and the southern planters are crushed by burdening debts . . . (Announce) LONDON, ENGLAND, 1765, LORD GRENVILLE speaks before the cabinet of His Majesty, King George III.—("God Save the King".)

"If His Majesty needs revenues, why does His Majesty deem it necessary to levy taxes on his *own* Merchants of the mother country? Rather, is it not fitting and proper that His Majesty levy these taxes on the colonies whose rich lands His Majesty doth own and who owe him allegiance? . . . The colonies have been displaying an unbecoming, rebellious spirit of late . . . His Majesty has but to issue Writs of Assistance to his Royal officers in America to enforce the law on the colonies . . ."

British forces under the direction of General Gage arrive in America and are quartered in the homes of the unwilling colonists . . . And (Announce) BOSTON, MASS., 1763 MESSENGER OF HIS LORDSHIP, Gov. Hutchinson of Mass. (trumpet call).

"All men, all women, all children, subject to the authority and allegiance of our King and Lord, George the Third . . . Be it hereby established, without controversy, that whatsoever goods thou buyest, sellest, and transacts, must bear upon its surface the seal of Our Majesty, King George, the Third . . . said goods to include playing cards, dice, yard-goods, woolens, hats, gloves, etc. . . . revenue from these seals shall go to alleviate the burden of protecting the American colonies, and to prohibit smuggling . . ."

General rebellion to the STAMP ACT spreads like wildfire . . . (Announce) BOSTON merchants call town meeting . . . pass resolution:

"We do hereby *condemn* this *villainous* ordinance from England which demands taxes on our commodities of trade. No law could be more *insidious* in its *intent*. For if our *trade* may be taxed, our *land*, the *produce* of our lands, and *everything* we possess will sooner or later come under the direct domination of England."

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(Announce) MASSACHUSETTS WOMEN'S LEAGUE:

"We pledge ourselves to boycott all British woolens and to work spinning and weaving with greater energy than ever from sunrise to dark."

(Announce) MAIDENS FROM PROVIDENCE . . .

"Let us vow to favor no suitors who approve the Stamp Act."

(Announce) SOCIETY OF SONS OF LIBERTY composed of laborers and artisans. Proclamation in PHILADELPHIA:

"The first man that either distributes or makes use of stamped paper, let him take care of house, person, and effects. Burn the stamps, we say!"

STAMP ACT CONGRESS, 1765.

"NO TAXATION WITHOUT REPRESENTATION."

In 1766 the Stamp Act was repealed . . . But England holds rigidly to her right to extract money from her colonies . . . (Announce) LONDON, ENGLAND . . . Representative of the wealthy monopoly, The East India Company, chartered by His Majesty, appears before the House of Peers: ("God Save Our King.")

"If His Majesty and our Worthy Peers will grant us permission, we can raise much revenue for the coffers of the State. We have in our possession large quantities of tea gotten from the far corners of the earth . . . Let us but have the right to sell to the colonists of America our tea through our own offices. In selling this tea *directly* to the people of the colonies, we will turn over much of our profits to His Majesty."

The East India Company is granted monopoly rights to sell tea to the thirteen colonies . . . Great consternation among the American merchants. (Announce) MESSENGER OF THE ROYAL GOVERNOR OF NEW YORK to the people: (trumpet call.)

"No America merchants can sell tea in the colonies. Merchants of the American colonies are hereby prohibited from selling tea to the people. This right is reserved for the East India Company of England."

Riots in the colonies . . . FARMERS, BLACKSMITHS . . . BARBERS . . . CARPENTERS hold mass meetings in protest . . .

Boston: "No tea shall be landed."

New York: "No tea shall be landed."

Philadelphia: "No tea shall be landed."

Boston Tea Party 1773—£18,000 worth of tea of the East India Company dumped into Boston harbor...

Tyranny strikes swiftly: The Intolerable Acts are passed: Boston ports are closed: town meetings are forbidden; legislatures are discontinued. General Gage sends troops in the dead of the night to arrest American leaders. Paul Revere rouses the minute men: The Battles of Lexington and Concord, and the American Revolutionary War is on! . . . (Announce) 1778 PATRICK HENRY before the Virginia House of Burgesses: —

"The war has actually begun. The next gale that sweeps from the North will bring to our ears the clash of resounding arms. Our brethren are already in the field. Why stand we here idle? Is life so dear or peace so sweet as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? Forbid it, Almighty God! I know not what course others may take, but as for me, give me liberty or give me death."

The American colonies are now divided into two camps, the Tories who support the crown of England —royal governors appointed by the crown, large land owners, feudal representatives of the crown, and, the second group, merchants, farmers, frontiersmen, artisans, and planters who demand freedom from restrictions . . . Agitation grips the country . . . (Announce) MAY 23, 1778, EDITOR OF *"The New York Gazette,"* a TORY paper, speaks:

"The American Revolution flies in the face of all experience, all history, and divine sanction. It is being stirred up by a few crafty men who play upon the ignorance and passions of the mob. By a handful of conspirators is the draft designed to cheat the crowd and fascinate mankind. And these conspirators are an infernal, dark, designing group of men . . . obscure, pettifogging attorneys, bankrupt shopkeepers, outlawed smugglers, wretched banditti, the refuse and dregs of man-kind."

And *leaders* of the American people such as Samuel Adams, Thomas Jefferson, James Otis, Patrick Henry, Thomas Paine, John Hancock, sent messages through Committees of Correspondence throughout the land to arouse the people to the dangers of tyranny . . . (Announce) 1775 . . . THOMAS PAINE issues his pamphlet *Common Sense*:

"Dearly, dearly, do we pay for the repeal of the acts, if that is *all* we fight for. Volumes have been written on the struggle between England and America, but the period of debate is closed. Britain is the parent country, say some. Then the more shame upon her conduct . . . This new world hath been the asylum for the persecuted lovers of civil and religious liberty from every part of Europe. Hither have they fled not from the tender embraces of the mother, but from the cruelty of the monster, and it is so far true of England that the same tyranny which drove the first emigrants from home, pursues their descendants still . . . Everything that is ripe or reasonable pleads for separation . . ."

One hundred thousand copies of *Common Sense* sweep the country! . . . (Announce) July 4, 1776 . . . THOMAS JEFFERSON signing the Declaration of Independence . . .

"These are self-evident truths,

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that all men are created equal and endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights including life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness . . . The purpose of government is to make such rights secure. For *these* reasons governments are instituted deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed . . . Whenever any form of government becomes *destructive* of these ends, the people have a right to *alter* or abolish it and institute a *new* government in a form most likely to affect their safety and happiness . . ."

The American Revolutionary War lasts for seven years . . . FARMERS FROM THE NORTH, INDENTURED SERVANTS . . . FREED NEGROES FROM THE SOUTH . . . shoulder guns under the command of George Washington, commander-in-chief of the Continental army . . . (Yankee Doodle whistled). Valley Forge! Trenton! . . . Saratoga! . . . The Continental army in desperate straits . . . Benedict Arnold plots to surrender West Point to the British. Will England subjugate the colonies? . . . France hastens to send aid to the invaded country.

(Announce) LAFAYETTE arrives in America . . . ("Marsellaise.") "Long live the American Republic."

Kosciusko, Steuben, Dekalb, Pulaski, international soldiers of freedom, arrive to aid America . . . 1781 Cornwallis surrenders at Yorktown . . . 1783 England signs the Treaty of Paris . . . The American Revolutionary War is won: America is now an independent republic! Feudal ties are broken forever! American merchants can trade with whom they please . . . Western lands are opened to the farmers and frontiersmen . . .

And America goes back to work to reap the fruits of Peace and Liberty . . .

But the present set-up of the American colonies consisting of thirteen independent state legislatures is a hindrance to the industrial growth of the country . . . Each state had its own system of coinage . . . each state issued its own money . . . each state could make separate treaties with foreign countries. Only a firm united nation would make possible the swift industrial development of the nation; would be in a position to collect enough money to pay the debts of the country; would win the respect of the entire world. Delegates from every state except Rhode Island meet at Philadelphia, 1787. A constitution is framed, a wonderful document, the first of its kind in the history of the civilized world, providing for the *election* of a president, a Senate, a Congress; providing for sufficient taxation power, providing for a standing army and navy, providing for treaty making powers, but *above all else*, unifying all the thirteen states into one united nation.

The constitution is finally submitted to the state legislatures for ratification. But the people, led by Thomas Jefferson and others, insisted that the Constitution become a real people's Constitution.

(Announce) 1787 Thomas Jefferson speaking to the people:

"I wish with all my soul that the conventions may accept the New Constitution, because this will secure to us the *good* it contains, which I think *great* and *important*. But I *equally* wish that they may *refuse* to *accede* to it, till a declaration of *rights* be annexed. By a declaration of rights, I mean freedom of religion, freedom of the press, freedom of commerce against monopolies, trial by juries in all cases, no suspension of the habeas corpus."

And so, the people asked what guarantees did the Constitution give against dictatorship? What guarantees did it give them for their precious newly won freedom? . . . Mass meetings everywhere . . . guarantees demanded . . . Resolutions flood the state legislatures demanding a bill of rights for the people.

From GEORGIA: "Complete religious freedom for all peoples."

From MARYLAND: "Freedom of speech!"

From NEW YORK: "Freedom of the Press."

From PENNSYLVANIA: "Freedom of assembly."

From MASSACHUSETTS: "Freedom to petition for redress of grievances!"

Two months after the convening of the Congress, James Madison, Father of the Constitution, arose and introduced the Bill of Rights as the first ten amendments of the Constitution of the United States! . . . The Bill of Rights represented the freedom the people of America so ardently desired . . . They had suffered the injustice of religious persecution, of political tyranny, of political dictatorship, and they were determined never to permit it to gain a foothold on these shores . . . The Bill of Rights has been an inspiration not only to the American people, but to people of all lands who suffered persecution, oppression, and tyranny . . . It has stood out as a beacon light for Democracy and human rights . . .

AND . . . under the protection of this great constitution, people from many lands came to settle in America . . . (mention of each group accompanied by appropriate music —pageant) Italians, Swedish, Germans, Russians, Spanish, Irish, Scotch, French . . . All great in that they came to give of their best to this land. Our roads have been built, our mines have yielded coal, our buildings have soared into the skies by the labor and hands of people from all corners of the earth who came to America to found their new homes . . .

And, later, under the greatest president this country has ever had, Abraham Lincoln, an amendment to this Constitution freed the NEGRO people of the South from chattel slavery, and extended to these *also* freedom and human rights.

* * *

Though at times the forces of

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bigotry and persecution have raised their heads in our land, and even conquered in local areas, the BILL OF RIGHTS of our Constitution has stood as a reminder calling the people *back* to the ways of FREEDOM, LIBERTY and EQUALITY which are the great democratic traditions for which America stands today.

(Commentator goes to the centre of the platform in the middle of the huge semi-circle formed by the actors and by the girls in costume.)

Perhaps, now, when we salute the flag, the words, "One Nation, Indivisible, with Liberty and Justice for All," will have deeper meaning for us. Perhaps now, when we sing "The Star Spangled Banner, the concluding lines will be more significant to us:

"Oh say does that Star Spangled
Banner still wave,
O'er the Land of the Free and
the Home of the Brave?"

And perhaps, now, the beautiful words of "America" will mean more to us than they have ever meant before:

"My country, 'tis of thee,
Sweet Land of Liberty,
Of Thee, I sing.
Land where my fathers died,
Land of the Pilgrim's pride,
From every mountain side
Let Freedom ring."

I am going to ask Miss ——— to play two chords on the piano, and when she does, let us all get up and sing "America" as we have never sung it before. (America is played and sung.)

* * *

Commentator: From the performance just given, all of us realize more keenly that the very foundations on which America stands is religious tolerance, freedom of conscience, human rights. I have Miss Jamer's permission to present the following resolution which will be read by Daniel Lambert. Please listen to it carefully as there will be a discussion and a vote taken on it.

(The following resolution was adopted by the students unanimously at the close of the performance in celebration of the adoption of the Constitution of the United States. Copies were forwarded to the President, the Governor, the Mayor, and the Board of Education.)

Whereas, we, the students assembled in the auditorium of Annex 192 of the New Utrecht High School, have just witnessed a dramatic performance in celebration of the 150th anniversary of the adoption of the Constitution of the United States of America,

And, whereas, we realize more keenly that the foundations of America and Americanism is religious toleration, respect for other peoples of other races and religions, freedom of conscience, human rights,

And, whereas, we understand that any discrimination or injustice to any racial or religious group is a threat to all groups in America and a blow to the foundations on which America was built . . .

We, the students here assembled, *resolve*

1. That we will with all our power maintain and uphold the traditions of American democracy.
2. That we will consider as un-American any slur or insult to any religious or racial group.
3. That we condemn the governments of all foreign countries in which there is barbarous persecution of racial and religious groups . . .
4. That we praise President Roosevelt for his action in getting our government to work together with the governments of South America to protect democracy in the Americas, and urge him to coöperate with democracies everywhere for the preservation of peace and freedom.

ANNA PAISNER.
New Utrecht High School.

TEACHING HISTORY FOR DEMOCRACY

The frothy, sweeping, and seeming successes of Fascist countries and their ideologies, have so alarmed many of our friends of Democracy, that it has caused them to lose all faith in the power of their own ideology to stem the tide of Fascism. These gentlemen and ladies have become so panicky that, in sheer desperation, they are ready to grasp at a straw. Some have stopped to ponder as to the reasons why democracies are losing ground, and have arrived at most fantastic conclusions.

Representative of this group is Professor Howard Mumford Jones, who writes on "Patriotism — But How?" in the November issue of the *Atlantic Monthly*. Professor Jones complains that few people seem to inquire why, if the Fascist and Communist nations are economically insane, they constitute so serious a menace to political democracy. Professor Jones does stop to inquire and arrives at the conclusion that the absence of a glamorous patriotism, absence of an American mythology, progressive education, debunking and social historians are to blame. So eager is Professor Jones to prove his case that he fails to note that he is misrepresenting our teaching, our histories, and our historians.

Professor Jones implies that our pupils read the debunking histories and that teachers use them as text books. This is not so. The debunking histories are read, perhaps, by a few college students, but our high school students certainly know very little about them. As a matter

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of fact, teachers object to these debunking histories as much as they do to mythology as history. Neither is true history. And it is the truth we wish to teach, the truth which is more glamorous than mythology. We, teachers, therefore, warn our students that these pseudo-historians distort the truth, and we gratefully turn to our social historians for an exposition of the truth.

In his attempt to prove his thesis, Professor Jones does great injustice to Professor Beard and other social historians. Says Professor Jones, "I admire Professor Charles A. Beard, like all who have to do with American History, but from the point of view of keeping alive a necessary patriotic glow in the juvenile breast, he has had an unfortunate influence." Let us turn to Beard and see if he is guilty of the above and also of "substituting sociology for personal endeavor." I quote from *The Rise of the American Civilization* by Chas. A. Beard, page 213, on Patrick Henry: . . . "a declaration supported by a moving speech of Patrick Henry in which he warned George III about the fate of Caesar and Charles I, silencing dissent by the exclamation: 'If this be treason, make the most of it!' And on Washington, page 275: . . . "all historians agree in assigning first rank to the personality of Washington, commander of the weary and footsore Continental Army . . . Washington was a giant in stature, a tireless and methodical worker, a firm ruler yet without the ambitions of a Caesar or a Cromwell, a soldier who faced hardships and death without flinching, a steadfast patriot, a hard-headed and practical director of affairs." Is this not sufficient to "kindle a patriotic glow in the juvenile breast"?

I quote from another text-book, written by social historians, *A Unit History of the United States*, by Hamm, Bourne, and Benton, page 349, on William Lloyd Garrison: . . . "The spirit of the new movement is illustrated by the following statement from this issue [of the Liberator]: " 'On this subject I do not wish to think, or speak, or write with moderation. No! No! Tell a man whose house is on fire to give a moderate alarm . . . but urge me not to use moderation in a cause like the present . . . I will not retreat a single inch —and I will be heard!' "

And from another text-book widely used in our high schools, *America, Its History and People*, by Faulkner and Kepner, page 256, Lincoln's first inaugural address: . . . "In *your* hands, my dissatisfied fellow-countrymen, and not in *mine*, is the momentous issue of Civil War. The Government will not assail *you* . . . *you* have no oath registered in heaven to destroy the government, while *I* shall have the most solemn one to "preserve, protect, and defend it!"

And from still another text-book, still more extensively used in our city high-schools, *The American People*, by D. S. Muzzey, page 498, on the Bryan campaign of 1896: "We are fighting," he cried, "in the defense of our homes, our families, our posterity. . . . We have petitioned, and our petitions have been scorned . . . We beg no longer, we entreat no more, we petition no more. We defy them! . . . we will answer their demand for a gold standard by saying to them: "You shall not press down upon the brow of labor this crown of thorns—you shall not crucify mankind upon a cross of gold!" Are these examples of "substitution of sociology for personal endeavor"?

Professor Jones's contention that the social historian has substituted conflicts of economic interest for dramatic events also falls to the ground, as a few references to Faulkner and Kepner will prove. See the dramatic accounts of the Hayne-Webster debate, the very graphic account of the Clay-Calhoun-Webster debate, 1850! Is it possible that Professor Jones has not visited a city high school in recent years and that he accuses on hearsay?

"It is not yet clear," continues Prof. Jones, "after a quarter of a century of advanced education, that the results, shown in municipal politics, have justified the erasure of romantic drama from the American school." Assuming for the moment that the Professor is right about the erasure of the romantic drama from our schools, it is not *advanced education* that is to blame, but rather the fact that *there is not enough of it*. Prof. Jones knows as well as I do that only a small minority of the American people have obtained the benefits of an advanced education.

The social historian has not "substituted conflicts of economic interests for dramatic events," but has shown us that our glamorous personalities were the *actors in these social dramas*. It was a *cause* that made a Washington, a Garrison, a Webster and a Lincoln, and not vice versa. It is the *why* and the *wherefore* that our best social historians have made clear to teachers and students alike, with the result that plaster saints have taken on human form. Having exonerated our social historians, let us proceed with our examination of Prof. Jones's views on the subject of patriotism.

Prof. Jones claims that the dictator countries have something that democracy does not possess; namely, a glamorous mythology, composed of semi-divine leaders, swastika, Roman fasces, or sickle and hammer. Again the professor errs. It is not patriotic mythology that gives the fascist countries their strength. It is rather their ability to keep before their people *aims and causes worth fighting for*. It is not a divine Hitler the Germans are ready to die for, but for "justice," for a greater empire, for a

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place in the sun, for a powerful Germany. It is not for Stalin the Russians are ready to die, but for greater opportunities for youth, for peace, for the industrialization of their fatherland. It is not for Mussolini the Italians are ready to die, but for the "Revival of the Roman Empire."

Much perturbed by the prospect that "the vaunted conflict among ideologies threatens to be won by nations with the greatest belief in its own mythology," Prof. Jones poses several questions: "If democracy should have to fight, will it be emotionally inspired by the sound historical fact that the Lincoln administration is supposed to have favored the high tariff crowd?" It seems to me that the sarcasm is entirely out of place. The answer is simple. Whether in a dictatorship or in a democracy, inspiration is the result of a desire for a better future and is *not* the result of backward glances. See with what admirable zeal and fervor the people of the United States entered into the First World War! The inspiration was *a cause worth dying for*: "To make the world safe for democracy," "to fight the war to end war."

"How revive patriotism without chauvinism?" asks Prof. Jones. Again the answer is simple: Given a worthy cause, our modern Washingtons, Garrisons and Lincolns will take the lead. Patriotism will then take care of itself. And those of us who have faith in the American people, are convinced that, when the time arrives, they will rise to the occasion and answer the call of their leaders, as behooves a free people.

LEAH EPSTEIN.
Girls Commercial High School.

*READING IN MATHEMATICS

In the last decade or so large numbers of pupils have come to the secondary schools ill-equipped to meet the reading problems in the various subjects. Teachers have not had to wait for published studies of reading test surveys to discover how serious was the problem of reading disability. Their own pupils have presented them with a great deal of evidence of a non-statistical nature which indicated serious reading backwardness. However, the data gathered from scores of statistical studies undertaken in different sections of the country, have served to indicate more emphatically that reading inefficiency was widespread.

There are, of course, factors others than reading liability which account for failure in various high school subjects. But no one can deny that limited reading ability is a factor of considerable importance in retardation. It is not extravagant to say that in a considerable number of high schools in the country, one pupil out of four does not know how to read sufficiently well to cope with his content subjects. A survey undertaken a year ago in New York City brought home to us the alarming truth that approximately 30 per cent of the incoming 8B pupils were found to be reading on elementary school levels. Some of these pupils had reading achievements adequate for work in 5A and 6A classes. It could hardly be expected that many of these poor readers would be able to survive scholastically beyond the first or second term.

To meet this reading emergency, the high school division of our own Board of Education has launched a program of remedial reading for first term pupils. The aim of this program is to provide training in reading for pupils who have demonstrated, on one or two standardized reading tests, that they possess only a small measure of reading skill. Classroom teachers of these pupils are being re-orientated to meet the problem. Reading work books and readers catering to a variety of extra-curricular interests are being used in the special classes. Individual school courses of study are being adjusted to the low level of these pupils' abilities as well as interests. It is a long range program that the high school division is engaged upon. Undoubtedly the program will be redefined as new discoveries are made. Undoubtedly there will be shifts of emphasis from one type of instruction to another. Undoubtedly there will be changes of policy, too. But in the main, I believe that the program of remedial reading which the high school division is pursuing will be carried out along lines related to the immediate needs of the pupils and in a way which meets the different classroom situations. I think it will be a successful program too, because the teachers themselves, as well as the officials in the division, have become keenly aware of their responsibilities in the matter and have shown an increasing interest in the problem.

I have no doubt that the news concerning the notoriously low reading ability of many pupils in the high schools has even traveled to the far reaches of that distant country where mathematics teachers dwell. In fact, I have no doubt that a number of you present here today have, on one occasion or another, been instrumental in making English teachers aware of the fact that many pupils could not comprehend simple arithmetical or mathematical material. And I am likewise sure that you have scolded these colleagues, in a purely professional way, of course, for their

*An address delivered before a panel of a joint conference of the Mathematics Chairmen's Association and the Association of Teachers of Mathematics of New York City, at the Hotel Astor, March 11, 1939.

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failure to bring such pupils up to scratch. I do not believe, however, that you heaved a vast sigh of relief when you heard that the high school division was embarking on a program of remedial reading, which was to be conducted by members of the English staff. Many of you must have felt that the whole problem of poor reading could not be solved by one department. I am sure you will agree with me that, however successful the English teachers may prove to be in remedying or correcting the reading faults, improving the reading habits, and extending the reading interests of their pupils in English, there is still a large field of endeavor in which the talents of mathematics teachers may profitably be employed.

This is not to say that social studies teachers or those who preach the gospel of science are to be denied a golden opportunity. It is my feeling that they, too, should be given the same opportunity to employ their talents in the direction of promoting efficiency in reading. I believe it is a serious mistake for subject teachers to regard the necessity for giving instruction in reading as the responsibility of English teachers alone. The teachers of the various content subjects must assume the responsibility for improving the reading efficiency of pupils in their charge. Only when teachers of content subjects realize their responsibility in this matter and begin to employ suitable therapeutic measures, will anyone be able to state confidently that the problem of reading inability in New York City is being handled in a comprehensive manner.

The battle must be fought on all fronts. It is not enough for subject teachers to say that reading is a skill which must be sharpened by the English instructor. It is not enough for subject teachers to lament that pupils coming from the elementary schools have not received adequate training in reading. Even if 8B pupils received adequate reading instruction, they would still not be in a position to meet the reading exigencies of their secondary school studies. The fact of the matter is that there are special reading skills peculiar to the various subjects. In addition to providing their pupils with the necessary content material, teachers of the various subjects are obliged to train their pupils in such reading skills as are necessary to comprehend the textual material studied in class or at home. What, after all, is the talk of the social studies teacher if it is not to teach his pupils to read a social studies book with some degree of competence. What, after all, is the task of the mathematics teacher if it is not to train his pupils to read mathematical material capably?

It is well known that the reading activities essential to effective study differ notably in the various subjects. Each subject possesses its individual vocabulary, employs its own symbols and signs, and calls for reading activities which have purposes peculiar to itself. The secondary school subjects differ considerably in their textual presentation. In English, for example, we find that the subject matter is frequently presented in verse form as well as prose. Every variety of sentence structure, every variety of phraseology is met with in the English course. Abstract terms are employed as well as concrete. Frequently words are used which have a double meaning. Frequently words are used which have no meaning at all. The didactic form of presentation is employed as well as the narrative. The dramatic form is mixed with the lyric.

In the social studies, long narrative passages are interpolated between paragraphs of a purely factual nature. This narrative material in social studies texts frequently seduces pupils from the purpose which the author had in including it, and as a result the pupils are not able to understand the central meaning of the assignment. Or we find textual material in the social studies which is heavily freighted with historical facts. Then again, we find reading material which is singular in one of several respects—that it advances contrasting points of view, or it explains causes and results, or preaches doctrine. Moreover, the average social studies text is richly studded with conceptual terms. It bewilders the reader with references to economics, art, and science. Frequently a single sentence transports him from one era to another. The harassed reader, whose reading equipment is geared for work with frothy narrative material, may even be required to follow the author's presentation of a thought through many pages. There are so many varieties of thought presentation in the social studies that it is small wonder that the pupils are unable to cope adequately with the problems involved. Surely it is not asking too much to require the social studies teacher to give his pupils training in the various skills which will enable them to meet the different reading situations in their books. The same applies, of course, to the science subjects, and I must say the same applies, perhaps with less force, to the subject in which most of you are interested. The language of mathematics material is peculiar in many respects. Ideas are presented in a minimum of words, which are highly denotative in character. These ideas are frequently conveyed through symbols. Compactness distinguishes the language of mathematics from that of other studies. As a result, the reader must apply himself to mathematical reading with a degree of intensiveness not needed in the other subjects.

Educators are agreed that pupils will read and comprehend and enjoy material which has a high

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intrinsic interest. In English, as you all know, we have had to revise considerably our notions about the types of reading to be placed in the hands of our pupils. English teachers have begun to recognize that Shakespeare and Milton need not necessarily be included in the English course of study for non-academic-minded pupils. Stories about modern heroes and deeds in science and discovery now hold a considerable portion, if not the center, of the stage in many English classrooms. I am not here this morning to argue that mathematics teachers, too, should revise their notions about providing a new type of content material which is educationally more significant than the content material of the past. I am not here to argue this point because I believe that mathematics teachers are well aware of the fact that their subject must be and has been made dynamic. Gone are the days, I believe, when mathematics teachers concerned themselves solely with the formal aspects of their subject. Gone are the days when pupils were required to engage in such activities as memorizing formal definitions and doing manipulative acrobatics with numbers. More stress, I believe, is being placed in the school room of today on the mathematical activities involved in reflective thinking, such as seeing relationships, forming generalizations, and applying principles to concrete life situations. The significance of mathematics and its relation to life are taught by introducing problems which are challenging and real to pupils—if not entirely so, at least more so than they were even ten years ago. Progress has been made in recent years by eliminating esoteric processes as cube root by formula, radicals, and involved brackets, and by replacing them with materials which are more life-like in character, if only on the surface. More unifying courses in mathematics are appearing and the more practical aspects of geometry and algebra are receiving their proper emphasis. In fact, more and more, mathematics is becoming a truly meaningful subject. Its computational aspects, important though they be, are no longer being stressed at the expense of more important phases. Aspects of mathematics have become more and more important. Mathematics today, in many schools, is being taught as a subject which has for its purpose the imparting of numerous understandings necessary for dealing intelligently with concrete problems of life. More and more the thousands of quantitative situations in life are being exploited, and properly so, for instruction in mathematics. More and more mathematics teachers are showing that they realize that, reduced to simple terms, their purpose in the educational scheme is to make more muscular their pupils' grasp of the concepts of quantity and space.

I have no doubt that there is still much work which needs to be done by mathematics teachers in preparing and presenting new types of material which will help make more muscular the students' grasp of fundamentals. Mathematics teachers have perhaps not been as ingenious in this direction as one might expect of persons of proven nimbleness with numbers and dexterity in manipulating them. I do not believe that mathematics teachers have exhausted their capacity to produce exercises and materials which are arrestingly interesting and truly meaningful. We still find problems of this kind in text books: "In ten years John will be half as old as his father; in twenty he will be 3/5 as old as his father now is. How old is his father?" Such a problem, as Thorndike has pointed out, would occur only in the remote contingency that someone, presumably a mathematics instructor, who knew that John was ten and his father thirty, figured out these future age ratios, then forgot the original ages of John and his father, but remembered what the future ratios were. And we still find a fraction defined as "a quantity less than a unit, or one expressed as the sum of a number of aliquot parts of a number." To a great extent, the materials of instruction in mathematics are still expressed in a dusty verbalism smacking of the classical tradition.

To many of you, this criticism is doubtless not new. Probably, at various times you yourselves have made it. I am aware of the fact that many mathematics teachers themselves are disturbed by the opaqueness which marks so much text-book material. I submit, however, that if one aim of mathematics is to inculcate straight thinking, text-books should at least not be characterized by crooked writing. I refer to scores of words and expressions which have been in common usage for years, and the continued use of which text-book editors, and perhaps teachers have never questioned. Experience with poor readers, however, has taught us that in many mathematics text-books, an expressional style is employed which serves an an obstacle to pupils' understanding. This language barrier has no connection at all with the various computational processes. Informal tests given to these retarded readers tell us that the students are confused when they come upon expressions such as the following:

The former
The latter
Diminished by
Combined capacity
Prime factor
Exceeds
Ascending order
Corresponding
Respectively
Successively
Accumulative
Units
Consequently
Simultaneous

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and others of the same family. Pupils likewise reveal confusion when they are asked to deal with problems which are phrased in that strange patois which has come to be habitual with writers of mathematics text-books. I offer a few examples:

1. A number increased by 10% of itself equals ———.
2. The square of the difference of two numbers is equal to the square of the first number, minus twice the product of the two numbers, plus the square of the second number.
3. To factor an expression means to find one or more expressions whose product is equal to the given expression.
4. The base of an isosceles triangle is extended in both directions.
5. If one side of a triangle is extended, the exterior angle thus formed is equal to the sum of the two remote exterior angles.
6. Three more than twice as many.
7. Six less than three times as many.

In view of the fact that the content of mathematics is so closely married to the language which conveys the thought, mathematics teachers have a special obligation to train their pupils to do the intensive type of reading required in the pursuit of their subject. It seems to me that the ability to interpret mathematical material is not only a worth-while objective of the teaching of mathematics but is a veritable *sine qua non*. Is it because instructors of mathematics are perhaps too preoccupied with subject matter that they attach hardly any importance to its lingual phase? Is it perhaps because so much of mathematics is made up of symbols which are non-verbal in character that mathematics teachers have depreciated the importance of the language element? The fact remains that you cannot divorce the problem of mathematical ideas and concepts from the verbal presentation of these concepts. It is only fair to ask that the verbal material in mathematics be cast in a form which mirrors the exact thought of the writer, and takes into regard the major comprehension disabilities of poor readers.

If reading efficiency in mathematics is to be promoted, text-books must be prepared by persons who are not only competent in the field but who are aware of general and specific reading deficiencies of secondary school pupils. Concepts must be presented with an eye to making them as clear as possible to the poorest reader. The various modes of expression which are habitual with mathematics writers should be examined with the thoroughness and precision upon which mathematics teachers pride themselves; and where these modes of expression are found wanting, the thoughts should be re-phrased in terms of transparent clarity. An inventory should be made of all expressional *cliches* which appear in mathematics, and these expressions should be carefully appraised for their ability to convey what they are intended to convey. I do not hesitate to say that if this were thoroughly done, text-books would result which would contain a minimum of expressional terms acting as deterrents to understanding.

Not only must text-books be published in which the reading material is so presented that it acts as an aid rather than an obstacle to the pupil, but mathematics instructors must and can do something about the problem also. It seems to me that retardation in mathematics would be greatly reduced if comprehensive studies were made by a large number of departments in the city, for the purpose of analyzing the reading activities required for successful study in mathematics. One well-known study which has been made was unfortunately based on so few cases that the results may hardly be said to carry conviction. I am referring to a study made several years ago by James M. McCallister. He made an analysis of the reading activities engaged in by several classes in the course of their mathematical work. The results of his study have been republished in a number of journals. Though his findings may not be statistically conclusive, yet he has pointed out a systematic technic for discovering the nature of reading difficulties in mathematics.

If the association of first assistants in mathematics, and the association of high school teachers of mathematics, would collaborate on a similar study based on a large number of cases; and on a study of reading faults other than mere carelessness, I believe that the findings resulting from this research activity would go a long way towards reducing retardation in mathematics. It is only through a painstaking and detailed analysis of reading difficulties as distinguished from mathematics difficulties that the actual needs of pupils may be ascertained. Just as English teachers are beginning to isolate the types of words and sentences which tend to confuse students, so should mathematics teachers undertake to describe the incidence of error for the various reading skills in mathematics. The formulation of such a list would not only permit mathematics teachers to place a finger on pupil weaknesses in reading, but would enable the teachers to employ remedial procedures in anticipation of pupil failure, rather than corrective procedures following it. All teachers including those of mathematics employ corrective methods, but remedial methods which anticipate and prevent pupil errors are more effective.

My plea, therefore, is for a systematic diagnosis of the reading causes of failure in mathematics. Let us not go to other studies made in other schools and cities with a population which is differ-

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ent from ours. Let us do the job as something which has not been attempted before. Let us start with no preconceptions. But if the task is to be done, it must be with a recognition on the part of mathematics teachers that if the study reveals that a great deal of failure in mathematics is due to faulty reading habits, then mathematics teachers themselves must give serious attention to the reading wants of their pupils.

As a step in the direction of undertaking this study, I should like to suggest the following: On your next departmental examination, whether it be in algebra or geometry, include a question or two which requires the pupils to do intensive reading of methematical material. These reading questions should not call upon them to demonstrate any computational skill whatsoever. Select reading material which has a number of conceptual terms and perhaps even some of the *cliches* which I have mentioned. Require the pupils to answer pointed questions which will test their skill in comprehension. Just as the English regents examination each term requires the pupils to interpret a passage which presumably they have never seen before, so should the regents examination in mathematics, and your own departmental tests, do likewise. I happen to know that one member of your association has been doing work of this kind for a great many years. I am referring to the chairman of this panel, Mr. Joseph B. Orleans, of the George Washington High School. I believe public recognition is due him for his pioneer efforts in this field, and I hope the day will soon come when he will find it possible to present his findings before you as a group.

Adapting a reading passage for purposes of interpretation is only one of many devices which may profitably be employed by mathematics teachers. The employment of devices of this character indicates good teaching. Good teaching, among other things, anticipates poor pupil response and is geared not only to remedy but to prevent it. There is nothing esoteric about remedial or preventive teaching. The term seems to frighten most people who have the impression that remedial teaching calls for new equipment and new techniques. I should like to spike that misconception once and for all time, and I am grateful to you for the opportunity which you have given me this morning to do so, and to suggest briefly how remedial work in reading may be undertaken in the field of mathematics.

WILL SCARLET.
Technical Director, Remedial Program, High Schools.

IS THE ESTABLISHMENT OF PUBLIC JUNIOR COLLEGES IN NEW YORK CITY DESIRABLE?

We, in the East, with our smug belief in the intellectual leadership of the North Atlantic seaboard, have let the "barbarians" of Texas and California steal a march. In each of those states, junior colleges have been established by the score, and since the World War enrollment has increased to a prodigious extent. Surely, such a steady growth must have some sound foundations, and must be indicative of vital needs.

The vastness of New York City's educational system precludes any daring pioneering, and the Board of Education was not to be censured for its inaction while the junior college was yet an untried institution. Now it is only extraordinary indifference to contemporary needs which has deprived so many city high school graduates of further educational opportunities.

Many a righteous taxpayer may indignantly protest that our city's obligation ceases with the provision of secondary educational facilities. (For our present purpose it is needless to dispute this highly questionable viewpoint.) The unfortunate fact is that our high schools do not complete our students' secondary education; if by that term we mean, among other things, the equipment of our students with a knowledge of our basic cultural tradition which will enable them to understand intelligently the complexities of present day society. Such a level of attainment is much more likely to be achieved after the fourteenth year of education, when the average college junior is permitted to concentrate his work about a particular specialization group. Few will dispute that secondary education of this kind is not available to all who desire it and are capable of profiting from it. That one man should be ignorant who has the capacity for knowledge, Carlyle called a tragedy. Unfortunately, even in our "megalopolis," there are many such tragedies.

The junior college movement is original chiefly in the sense that it recognizes the fact that more time is necessary to accomplish the avowed aims of any enlightened program of secondary education. According to Koos[1] they are to provide the following:

1. College preparation
   In the case of the junior college this would mean preparation for the junior year

[1] Koos, L. V., *The Junior College Movement.*

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where work of true collegiate character commences.

2. A more natural terminal function.
3. A program of semi-professional training where desired. As a student approaches his twenty-first year his mind is more likely to be made up, and his desire to equip himself for financial independence will, in the majority of cases, be very strong. Two people are absorbed in the semi-professions for one in the professions.
4. The popularization of higher education

   The unfit will find an honorable stopping place at the end of the junior college, while many who are unquestionably college material will decide to continue for the remaining two years for the baccalaureate degree.
5. The extension of home influences during immaturity

   After graduation from high school many students are unfit to make the radical adjustment from home to dormitory life. The two years of added maturity can often make the difference between a successful and disastrous collegiate career.
6. To foster the inevitable reorganization of our secondary educational system

Some years ago a college president pointed out that there was no logical reason for our arbitrary 8-4-4 plan. In attacking the termination of our secondary schools at the end of the twelfth year, he pointed out that we did this because the seventeenth century founders of Harvard did so; our colonial forbears followed the medieval practice of the English at Oxford and Cambridge; the English derived their educational divisions from the medieval French, who in turn had borrowed it from the ancient university at Bologna.

Will it prove too horrible a revolution to revise this archaic system?

The public duty of preparing youths for life has been admitted. For the increasing complexity of city life, future citizens require a more careful adjustment. Many young men and women pushed out of educational institutions that do not want them into a world that does not need them are likely to become menaces to themselves as well as to society. It is our obligation to provide for them.

The day sessions of our four free city colleges can accommodate only 16,000 students. Our present high school population is about 265,000. Without the establishment of free junior colleges the dilemma of those who cannot afford private institutions and could not enter the highly selective city college is insoluble.

There can be little doubt that from the ranks of the New York secondary school teachers an excellent junior college personnel can be supplied, and as a result the severe teacher unemployment problem would be alleviated.

Public junior colleges are not entirely new to the metropolitan area. Under the supervision of City College several W.P.A. junior colleges were established.[1] The one which was started at Garden City in 1933 charged three dollars per course. In the three years of its existence, seventeen hundred young people received college credits. Since the average student's family income was $1,845 per year, it is not likely that many of them could undertake the financial obligation of a four year course in a private institution. When they were faced with the prospect of losing the junior college, Long Islanders conducted a bitter and unsuccessful fight for its retention. Westchester County also had two W.P.A. junior college centers whose demise was an educational tragedy to all connected with them.

Educators in Chicago established three free junior colleges—Wright, Medill, and South Side. These institutions were established for two reasons: first, society's obligation to unemployed youth; and second, youth's obligation to society. The city of Chicago seemed to have learned some valuable lessons after its notorious reputation of the 1920's.

The plan's cost will probably be the chief objection to the city's adoption of the junior college. Educators may feel that an increase in the budget of the secondary schools (the junior college is included here) will mean a necessary curtailment of funds for elementary education. It is false economy for the richest city in the world not to prevent a huge rise in the appalling number of helpless, bewildered, and destitute citizens.

II

This writer is most familiar with East Harlem, one of the many underprivileged communities in the United States. It might be well to study the probable effect of the establishment of a junior college here so that a more concrete idea of the potential advantages for the entire city might be gained.

It is doubtful that any community of 230,000 can show such a wide variety of ethnic groups. They are as follows:

Ethnic Group	*Estimated No.*
Italian	79,650
Irish	18,600
German	11,450
Jewish	28,850
Slavic, Russian, Polish, Etc.	3,800

[1] Marks, Marjorie, "County Seeks Junior College" in New York *Times*, June 14, 1936.

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Magyar	1,750
Scandinavian	4,300
British	5,200
Greek	1,600
Latin American and Spanish	4,350
Puerto Rican	14,300
Native White of Native Parentage	15,207
Negro	29,422
Orientals	571
All Others	14,350
Total Population	233,400[1]

Since the bulk of the population is almost destitute and their housing conditions are far below standard, there is rather a high percentage of criminality. Among foreign groups who have had an insufficient opportunity to make a full adjustment to a new society, a high rate of delinquency can be expected. The many social agencies, public and private, are understaffed and unable, despite great efforts on the part of many of the personnel, to cope with the tremendous demands made upon them. School buildings are antiquated, most of them antedating 1890; libraries which should have a circulation of 1,000,000 books a year manage to lend 42,000 volumes.

This very rough outline of some of the needs of East Harlem is necessary in order to ascertain of what benefit a junior college might prove there. The keynote of an East Harlem Junior College should be community leadership. It should be similar in nature to that now carried on by Dr. Leonard Covello and his faculty at the Benjamin Franklin High School, who undertake to coöperate with other community leaders. At the proposed junior college it is hoped that the students will have attained a sufficient level of maturity to take an important part in community work. The students in the community know East Harlem best; it is from them that the most effective and inspiring leadership must come, so that their district will no longer be a "blot on Father Knickerbocker's 'scutcheon."

The junior college seems to be a more logical place to carry on adult education programs than the elementary or the high school. This is another opportunity for this institution.

The junior college has the opportunity to aid in creating socially desirable citizens not only because of its effect upon its own students, but because of the effect of the students upon the community.

Many a student who could not continue his education under our present system would then be able to do so. Boys whose ancestors for generations may have been unskilled laborers would be able to enter the semi-professional, if not professional, ranks.

The faculty of the East Harlem Junior College would be one with an intimate knowledge of the community's problems, and would therefore be far better equipped for intelligently and sympathetically guiding the students than easily shocked professors of New England or Western universities.

A junior college in this community could become a cultural center which should attempt to eradicate the feeling of inferiority natural to many Europeans in this country. A genuine sympathy and understanding of the various cultures represented in the community which have enriched America could be substituted.

III

Even the most enthusiastic believers in the efficacy of the junior college as an educational institution do not favor their indiscriminate founding. Criteria for the establishment of the junior college have been carefully devised. The most thorough study of this particular problem has been made by Dr. John Allen.[1]

Let us examine these criteria to see whether the establishment of the junior college is desirable.

1. Size of Community
   No statistical data seems necessary here.
2. Community Interest
   The clamorous protests raised after the closing of W.P.A. junior colleges in the metropolitan area indicate what New York public sentiment concerning this question is likely to be.
3. Real Student Need
   More than one per cent of the half million high school students in New York State are postgraduates *despite lack of encouragement and lack of proper educational provisions.*[2]
4. Ability to Support
   Certainly the city of Chicago (not to mention cities of less substantial resources) is no better able to care for this burden than our own city.
5. Number of High School Graduates per Year
   Our secondary school system is probably the largest in the world.

Junior colleges are more necessary than city colleges which have sprung up in our four largest boroughs. The intellectually and financially elite do not need the helping hand of our city fathers; it is to the less privileged financially, mentally, and spiritually that the city should act as a good Samaritan, so that it in turn can reap the benefits of a well-adjusted society.

LEE R. LOMBARD.
Benj. Franklin H. S.

[1] Figures obtained from a survey conducted by W.P.A. staff members at the Benjamin Franklin High School.

[1] Allen, John S., *Criteria for the Establishment of Junior Colleges.* Ph.D. dissertation, New York University.

[2] Jacobsen, E. W., *Educational Opportunities Provided for Postgraduate Students in Public High Schools.* Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 523.

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A BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR ECONOMICS

The preparation of this bibliography arose from a project undertaken by the Association of Teachers of Social Studies and its affiliated organizations including the Economics Section.

The bibliography that follows represents an attempt to choose a list of economics books which would solve the needs of teachers and students. Every effort was made to select books that would be of value over a long period of time rather than those of current interest. The principal purpose, however, was to provide a basic bibliography for the high school library.

The criteria established necessitated the listing of books which were not necessarily the most widely known in the field. At the same time, many well known books had to be omitted. The committee decided that a separate bibliography for economic geography would make possible more careful selection and organization. This will follow later.

The committee hopes this list will represent a selective bibliography. Within each field, an effort to achieve a balance was made. Along with the authoritative and scholarly works, the simple, interesting books of popular character were included because of their appeal to the student. In many instances, the standard classical books were listed though difficult and uninteresting to read because of their preeminence among economists and their value as reference material. For further balance, the committee, wherever possible, listed books representing different points of view on controversial topics, emanating from the right, from the center, and from the left.

Omissions represented the most difficult task. Many well known books were drawn out of the list to avoid too many of one kind in each topic or duplication in point of view or information. Where it was felt that the book, although of tremendous significance to scholars, was too technical or specialized for the teacher in lesson preparation and the same information was more adequately covered elsewhere for the purposes of the high school student, the book was omitted.

The topics selected represent those usually important in the general economics courses in the high schools. To facilitate the use of this bibliography by teachers and students, the relative difficulty of the book is indicated by (1) representing those books that may be read with profit by the average student; (2) representing those books that would be of value only to the superior student; (3) those that could be used by the teacher and the exceptional student.

The committee hopes that this list will be useful to teachers of Economics and to teachers of Social Studies.

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CHARLES COGEN
JAMES F. CORBETT

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New Deal a futile attempt to reconcile irreconcilable interests.

3. Strachey, John. *Coming Struggle for Power.* 413 pages. Revised edition. Modern Library. $1.00. 1934.

Analysis of capitalism; inherent causes of its decay; impossibility of realizing Kaynes' internationally stable price level; communism the remedy.

1. Thomas, Norman. *Human Exploitation in the United States.* 402 pages. Stokes. $2.75. 1934.
2. Webb, Sidney and Beatrice. *Soviet Communism: a New Civilization.* 1203 pages. Scribner. $7.50. 1936.

PUBLIC FINANCE

3. Committee on Taxation of the Twentieth Century Fund. *Facing the Tax Problem:* A Survey of Taxation in the United States and a Program for the Future. 606 pages. Twentieth Century Fund. $3. 1937.
2. Fagan, E. D., and Macy, C. W. *Public Finance:* Selected Readings. 960 pages. $4.75. 1935.
3. Lutz, Harley L. *Public Finance.* 940 pages. Appleton-Century. $4. 3rd edition. 1936.
3. Shultz, William J. *American Public Finance and Taxation.* 635 pages. Prentice Hall. $5. 1931.
1. Shultz, William J. *Your Taxes.* 280 pages. Doubleday Doran. $2. 1938.

ECONOMIC GEOGRAPHY

3. Bowman, Isaiah. *Geography in Relation to the Social Studies.* 382 pages. Scribner. $2.25. 1934.

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3. Bowman, Isaiah. *The New World:* Problems in Political Geography. 215 maps. World Books. $6. 1922.

1. Chase, Stuart. *Rich Land, Poor Land.* 361 pages. McGraw-Hill. $2.50. 1936.
   A Study of Waste in the Natural Resources of America.

3. Lippincott, Isaac. *Economic Resources and Industries of the World.* 656 pages. Appleton Century. $5. 1929.

3. Huntington, Ellsworth. *Civilization and Climate.* 453 pages. Yale University Press. $5. 1924.

3. Huntington, Ellsworth, and Cushing. *Principles of Human Geography.* 467 pages. Wiley. $3. 1934.

2. Parkins, Almon E., and Whitaker, J. R. (eds.). *Our Natural Resources and Their Conservation.* 650 pages. Wiley. $4. 1936.

3. Smith, J. Russell. *Industrial and Commercial Geography.* 959 pages. Holt. $4.50. 1925.

3. Smith, J. Russell. *World's Food Resources.* 641 pages. Holt. $3.50. 1919.

3. Whitbeck, Ray H., and Finch, V. C. *Economic Geography.* 565 pages. McGraw-Hill. $3.50. 1935.

PAMPHLET MATERIAL

The following list suggests a number of agencies publishing pamphlet material useful in economics classes. No mention is made of school magazines and papers such as "Scholastic," "American Observer," or publications like Consumers Union Reports, Consumers' Research Bulletins, or the American Economic Review. At the end of the pamphlet list a number of *free* publications are mentioned.

For a more detailed pamphlet list, the teacher may refer to "Pamphlets on Public Affairs for Use in Social Studies Classes," *Bulletin No. 8, National Council for the Social Studies,* Harvard University, May 1937, or to "Public Affairs Pamphlets," *Bulletin No. 3, 1937 Office of Education,* Washington, D. C. The latter list has been supplemented with new material and will probably be kept up to date with further supplements. Ten cents a copy from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C.

* * *

American Academy of Political and Social Science, 3457 Walnut Street, Philadelphia, Pa.

Sample Titles:

Burrows, H. R., and Horsefield, J. K. *Economics of Planning.*

Coker, Francis W. *Property Rights as Obstacles to Progress.*

* * *

American Association for Social Security, 22 East 17th Street, New York City.

Sample Titles:

Gray, H. *Social Security in the United States. Unemployment Insurance in the State of N. Y.*

Pribram, Karl. *Some Economic and Social Problems in Health Insurance.*

* * *

American Association of University Women, 1634 I Street, N.W., Washington, D. C.

Sample Titles:

Warne, Colston E. *The Economic Depression: A Study of Possible Ways Out.*

Beard, Ritter Mary. *A Changing Political Economy as It Affects Women.*

* * *

American Book Company, 88 Lexington Avenue, New York City. "America's Town Meeting of the Air" Series.

Sample Titles:

Morgan, Dr. Arthur E., and Hooker, Elon H. *Is Government Competition Retarding Business Recovery?*

Johnson, Hugh S., and Bardo, Clinton L. *Can Business Absorb Our Unemployed?*

Lincoln, Murry; Grimes, Frank J.; Howe, Frederick C., and Mead, Joseph. *Consumers' Coöperatives and Private Business.*

* * *

American Education Press, Inc., 40 South Third Street, Columbus, Ohio. Modern Problem Series.

Sample Titles:

Stanley, G. N., and Sayre, H. M. *Economic Planning. Can Depressions Be Abolished?*

Leach, Harper. *Plenty Can Have It Without Sharing.*

* * *

American Federation of Labor, Washington, D. C.

Sample Titles:

Recommendation for State Unemployment Compensation Laws.

Fowler, Charles Burnell. *A Study of Unemployment Insurance.*

* * *

The Brookings Institution, 722 Jackson Place, N.W., Washington, D. C.

Sample Titles:

Moulton, H. G., and Leven, Maurice. *The Thirty Hour Week.*

* * *

Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 405 West 117th Street, New York City.

* * *

Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Washington, D. C.

Sample Titles:

The American Economic System.

Banking Act of 1935 — Topical Analysis Presenting Substance of Act in Non-Technical Way.

Nystrom, Paul H. *Chain Stores.*

* * *

The Coöperative League of the United States of America, 167 West 12th Street, New York City.

Sample Titles:

Cowling, Ellis. *A Short Introduction to Consumer Coöperation.*

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The Council for Social Action, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

250. Douglas, Paul H. *Profits and the Profit System.*

* * *

The Debate Handbook, Box 209, Columbia, Mo.

255. Aly, Bower. *Electric Utilities.*

259. Leland, Foster, Aly, and Fishbein. *Socialized Medicine.*

* * *

Educational Research Project Fifteen, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

Sample Titles:

Inflation.

Must We Spend Our Way Back to Prosperity.

Overexpansion in Capital Goods.

* * *

Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., 232 Madison Avenue, New York City.

Sample Titles:

Reed, Harold L. *The Commodity Dollar.*

Spahr, Walter E. *An Economic Appraisal of the New Deal.*

* * *

Foreign Affairs Forum, 8 West 40th Street, New York City.

Sample Titles:

Stephens, W. E. *Economic Nationalism.*

Foreign Policy Association, Inc., 8 West 40th Street, New York City.

Foreign Policy Reports.

Foreign Policy Pamphlets.

Headline Books.

Sample Titles:

Made in U. S. A.

Coöperatives.

* * *

International Ladies Garment Workers Union, Educational Department, West 16th Street, New York City.

Sample Titles:

You and Your Union.

* * *

League for Industrial Democracy, 122 East Nineteenth Street, New York City.

Sample Titles:

Bauer, John. *American Struggle for Electric Power.*

Laidler, H. W. *Unemployment and Its Remedies.*

Thomas, Norman. *Plight of the Share-Cropper.*

* * *

National Catholic Welfare Conference, 1312 Massachusetts Avenue, Washington, D. C.

Sample Titles:

McGowan, R. A. *Toward Social Justice.*

Ryan, John A., and McGowan, R. A. *The Labor Problem.*

Youth Today and Tomorrow.

* * *

National Child Labor Committee, 419 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

Sample Titles:

Child Labor Facts.

* * *

National Consumers' League, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

Sample Titles:

Labor Laws of the Twelve Southern States.

* * *

National Home Library Foundation, Dupont Circle Building Arcade, Washington, D. C.

Sample Titles:

Coyle, David. *Brass Tacks.*

Winslow and Brougham. *Money and Its Power.*

National League of Women Voters, 726 Jackson Place, N.W., Washington, D. C.

Sample Titles:

Frederick, K. A. *Taxes and Tax Trends.*

Lamb, B. P. *Government and the Consumer.*

* * *

The National Peace Conference, 8 West 40th Street, New York City.

World Affairs Pamphlets.

Sample Titles:

Wallace, Henry A. *America Must Choose.*

Molyneaux, Peter. *The Cotton South and American Trade Policy.*

* * *

Public Affairs Committee, National Press Building, Washington, D. C.

Public Affairs Pamphlets.

Sample Titles:

Stewart, Maxwell S. *Income and Economic Progress.*

Foster, William Trufant. *Doctors, Dollars and Disease.*

Society for Curriculum Study, 425 West 123rd Street, New York City.

Building America Series.

Sample Titles:

Housing.

Power.

Steel.

* * *

Tax Policy League, 309 East 34th Street, New York City.

Sample Titles:

Tax Nonsense.

The General Sales Tax.

The Townsend Plan, Analyzed.

* * *

Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

The National Crisis Series.

Senior High School Series.

Sample Titles:

Mendenhall, James E., and Marshall, Leon C. *Our Government's Relation to Banking and Securities.*

* * *

The University of Chicago Press, 5750 Ellis Avenue, Chicago, Ill.

Public Policy Pamphlets.

Sample Titles:

Simons, Henry C. *A Positive Program for Laissez-Faire.*

Whittlesey, Charles R. *Banking and the New Deal.*

American Primers.

Sample Titles:

Senturia, Joseph J. *Strikes.*

Crighton, John C., and Senturia, Joseph J. *Business and Government.*

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Sample Titles:

Kaplan, A. D. H. *What If Not Capitalism?*

University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, Minn.

Sample Titles:

Moulton, H. G. *Income Distribution Under Capitalism.*

Viner, Jacob. *Balanced Deflation, Inflation, or More Depression?*

* * *

University of Virginia Extension Division, University, Va.

Sample Titles:

Hale, O. J. *Liberalism, Fascism, and Communism in Post-War Europe.*

* * *

University of Wisconsin Bulletin Mailing Room, College of Agriculture, Madison, Wis.

Sample Titles:

Anderson, D. S., and Anderson, M. P. *What Program of Agricultural Conservation is Needed?*

Froker, R. H., and Anderson, M. P. *How Can the Buyer Get His Money's Worth?*

SOME USEFUL GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS (FREE)

Annual Reports and *Bulletins* of *Agencies* such as:

Agricultural Adjustment Administration.

Federal Trade Commission.

Food and Drug Administration.

National Labor Relations Board.

Securities and Exchange Commission.

Social Security Board.

Tennessee Valley Authority

and other agencies and bureaus of the government in Departments such as Agriculture, Commerce, Labor, Interior, and Treasury.

The Consumers Guide

Consumers' Counsel Division, Agricultural Adjustment Administration, Washington, D. C.

Labor Information Bulletin

Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, D. C.

Notices of Judgment Under the Food and Drugs Act

Food and Drug Administration, Washington, D. C.

SOME USEFUL PUBLICATIONS AVAILABLE WITHOUT CHARGE FROM PRIVATE AGENCIES

Business Bulletin

Cleveland Trust Co., Cleveland, Ohio.

The Chase Economic Bulletin

Chase National Bank, 18 Pine Street, New York, N. Y.

The Index

New York Trust Company, 100 Broadway, New York, N. Y.

Monthly Bulletin of National City Bank of N. Y.

National City Bank of New York, 55 Wall Street, New York, N. Y.

Monthly Review of Credit and Business Conditions

Federal Reserve Bank of New York, 33 Liberty Street, New York, N. Y.

Publications of:

American Federation of Labor, Washington, D. C.

Chamber of Commerce of the U. S., Washington, D. C.

Congress of Industrial Organizations, Washington, D. C.

HIGH POINTS

TEACHING COMPOSITION IN VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

When graduates of elementary school or of junior high school make their plans for further study today, they choose a secondary school that is essentially academic or vocational. If the entering student elects to attend the former type school, he generally finds that the course in English is almost as rigid as it was in the division from which he was graduated. Ultimately, he is expected to pass a Regents' examination, towards which his four years of English are directed.

The approach to the problem of English, and of composition in particular, in vocational schools takes into consideration the ways in which that knowledge may be applied by the student after graduation. Few students of vocational subjects will be required to write stories about baseball, libraries, rainy days and books, or descriptions of characters, bridges, and rooms, but they may have to make reports, prepare inventories, write telephone memoranda, list prices, give explanations—and be able to understand them. They may need to make out applications, or to write post-cards for information, or to write advertising letters. And since there is no compulsion to prepare for Regents', these tasks replace the usual "cramming."

In order to perform these tasks properly, vocational students are forewarned of possible errors. This is where grammar enters. Sentences should be taught because they are necessary for making out reports. *Ain't* should be avoided because an employer frowns on an applicant who uses it. A précis exercise should be done because telephone messages have to be taken down in that form. Every aspect of the composition work should be supported by a valid reason for teaching it; otherwise, it is not appropriate. All composition work, moreover, should be presented in the way in which the student will be likely to meet it later on.

Therefore, for every instance, a special job has to be presented that would actually be required of the young worker in industry. As the work in the "related" division (the academic side) is more closely associated with the work being done in shop, the absolute need for a knowledge of composition and grammar becomes self-evident and with the urge thus engendered, there is less need to *force* the English curriculum down resisting throats.

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In the Brooklyn High School of Automotive Trades, our course of study for composition is correlated with that in English Literature. This is even more advisable than it would be under other conditions, because there are two periods of English per day when the classes are not in shop.

The following topics are used as points of departure from which branch many roads, leading to interesting but practical vistas in the field of English study.

Term	Composition	Literature
1	*Filling out forms* (Applications for positions, licenses, insurance, money orders, and checks)	Story Element Lives of Great Men
2	*Questions and Answers* (Clear questions with punctuation — short, clear, complete answers)	Story Settings
3	*Dictation and Summaries* (Outlines, Notes for reference, précis)	Writing stories Changing conclusions
4	*Reports* (Accident reports, shop reports, reporting conversation, interviewing a worker)	Historical background
5	*Letters* (Post-cards; business letters of order, complaint, acknowledgment, adjustment; friendly notes; memoranda)	Acting in short plays
6	*Advertising* (Diagrams; description; attractive colors; sales letters)	Interest in achievements of scientists and inventors
7	*Journalism* (Newspapers; magazines; pamphlets; editorials; propaganda analysis; News commentators)	Criticism of stories and essays
8	*Courtesy - Etiquette* (Courtesy in business; introductions; conversations; telephone courtesy; business ethics)	Cultural Emphasis Painting, architecture, music, designing

James V. Cunningham.
Brooklyn High School of Automotive Trades.

AN EXPERIENCE WITH NON-ACADEMICALLY-MINDED PUPILS IN BIOLOGY

The substitution of the term "non-academically-minded pupils" for "failures" may be euphemism or may describe a genuine, psychologically differentiated group. In the absence of reliable criteria or tests, we adhered to the old term in selecting pupils for the experience we shall describe here. By present standards of teachers' marks and examinations, they were not academically-minded, at least not in biology (and generally, not in other academic subjects).

Three methods are described in the literature for treating this group,—modificaton of the course of study, variation of methodology, or a combination of both. It is widely held that these pupils are incapable of comprehending the subject matter of the prescribed course, so that the content is frequently simplified, reduced or substituted. In methodology, objectification is stressed, either through demonstration, laboratory work or visual aids.

In planning our work, we chose to adhere to this philosophy of science education, namely, that the concepts and methods of science have values for all who will live in a democracy; that biology can be made a living experience; that all children who have survived the first nine years of school have undergone a selection and are therefore capable of comprehending the generalizations of biology, of learning the supporting data, and of developing some degree of skill in the techniques.

The course that we planned lies therefore within the framework of the accepted state syllabus in general biology. Instead of reducing the number of concepts and factual background, we increased them. As developed, the course consists of a review of the work failed and an overview of the second term's work. A modified, Daltonized laboratory method is used. A series of "work sheets" is the essential feature. These guide the pupils' study (reference work) as well as the laboratory work. Each child works, largely independently, at his own pace. It may be described as a

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laboratory-research method. Once a week there is a community discussion to help those who are experiencing difficulties and to introduce the advantages of social coöperation. Each pupil's progress is recorded on a progress sheet that is posted.

The room is equipped with a "library," a variety of texts, to which the pupils refer during the period. Each student has a library card which he leaves with the pupil-librarian when he borrows a book which he receives back when the book is returned. No texts are issued for the term. Pupils may borrow them overnight. Many do so.

The results of the laboratory work and the reference reading are recorded in reports based upon guiding questions on the work sheet. These are checked carefully, immediately upon being submitted. Each must be rated satisfactory or better before the pupil is permitted to proceed with the next exercise. The interim and final ratings are based upon the accuracy of these reports, the results on unit tests (given about every tenth day), uniform midterm and final tests. The unit tests are based upon summary and review sheets which are not factual, but are, rather, study guides.

It will surely be noted that there is an apparent contradiction in our assertion that pupils proceed at their own pace and the fact that there are unit and uniform examinations. We feel that the teacher has the responsibility of investigating causes of unusual slowness. The testing program favors the better pupils who work faster, but does not discriminate against the slower pupils.

It may be objected that such a program is a very exacting one for the teachers concerned. This has been especially true during the first term of the plan, when the work sheets had to be prepared. We were fortunate in securing the assistance of a W.P.A Project Unit. An assistant was assigned to each class to help in grading papers, giving individual instruction in class, meeting pupils outside of class for special help, getting materials ready. We were doubly fortunate in securing assistants who were exceptionally capable, interested, considerate and sympathetic. Moreover, we were able to keep these classes somewhat smaller than normal ones. We were helped, too, by the fact that the teachers who participated were possessed of missionary zeal. We are concerned during the second time that we are trying this plan to systematize and routinize the mechanical details and to study how the essential features of the plan may be introduced into normal classes, where such contributions would improve the work we are doing.

Subjective estimates made by many competent observers at different times have a high degree of validity. Judged by such opinions the course is successful. Invariably, visitors are taken to the "repeaters class" and invariably they find the pupils working actively and purposefully.

The comments of the pupils in the classes made in informal interviews are frequently testimony of the success of the plan. "Why didn't you teach us this way last term?" asked one of our own failures. "We have more fun this way," said another. We came into a room on one occasion when all but one boy were doing microscopic work. "No work for you today?" we asked. "Sure," he replied, "I've got some things to look up in the book."

We have, too, definite objective results to indicate the success of the experience. During the first class meeting, we explained our program and procedure to the children. Those who would receive a mark of 80% or more by the criteria cited above, would be permitted to take the Regents' Examination, on the basis of two terms of work. There were 57 pupils on register in two classes at the end of the term. Nineteen of them were admitted to the examination. One was ill on the day of the test; seventeen received passing marks. It is worth noting that the pupils in these classes did not have the benefit of the usual reviews in class during the last few weeks of the term.

What of the others? Twenty-two received ratings of 65% to 80%. They were promoted to a normal second term class. We hope and expect that they will be able to maintain themselves well because of the overview that they have had. We have programmed them into one class where we can adapt our teaching to their special needs, under the supervision of a teacher who knows them well. Of the remaining sixteen, four are listed as chronic absentees. For these, and for five others that did little work despite the teacher's efforts, we need the help of a sympathetic dean and, perhaps, a psychologist. Seven others did fairly consistent work but could not make the grade. These probably need a slower, simpler course. This solution is, obviously, not for them. It appears that we have in this group of "Failures" several distinct groups. Our plan has isolated them, and has been successful with two of them. We shall now apply ourselves to a study of the others.

There are other less tangible results worth noting. Pupils who are made to repeat a course invariably are discouraged and discontented. The pupils in this experiment were interested and encouraged. Most pupils who fail and repeat develop "failure complex." Most of these pupils have had their confidence improved and their ego developed. Take the case of Joe. He suffers from a nervous disorder so that his coördination

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is impaired. Normally he feels handicapped and neglected. Joe passed the Regents' Examination. The salutary effect is out of all proportion to his mark.

What is our next step? We want to improve in every respect, in the selection of the pupils, in the preparation of our work sheets, in the selection of the experiences for the pupils, in the character of the review sheets and questions. Incidentally, we know now that these pupils are capable of reflective thinking and of developing the drive necessary for productive work. They do appear to require more guidance. We must study the organization and mechanical features of the plan to minimize routine work so that the methodology may be adaptable to normal classes without the additional help that we enjoyed. Finally we must secure the help of psychologists or investigators to discovers the causes of our failure to reach sixteen of the pupils in this experience.

This is a report of progress of a plan for teaching failures. We are satisfied that the results have justified the efforts expended. We have, after all, nothing new or novel to offer. It appears to boil down to these contributions: a desire to try to do something for pupils whom our present organization fails to reach, a readiness to try an unconventional approach, a feeling of sympathy for those who do not succeed by conventional methods, a willingness to do work beyond the call of duty.

CHARLES A. GRAMET.
HAROLD NAGLER.
Franklin K. Lane High School.

CHARACTER TRAINING THROUGH BOOKKEEPING

In recent years, particularly in the field of commercial education we are realizing, more and more, the importance of developing in our students desirable attitudes and ideals, in addition to the teaching of specific subject matter. The trend, in the high schools, is definitely away from vocational training. We no longer attempt to justify the commercial curriculum solely on a utilitarian basis. In addition, we try to make use of the splendid opportunities for character development which are inherent in business subjects. The New York City syllabus in bookkeeping recognizes this tendency by including such training as one of its aims.

The great majority of our commercial graduates never put into use the technical material which they have studied so assiduously in the bookkeeping and stenography classes. They will, however, as citizens of the community be expected to possess and exhibit what is commonly known as good character.

Many thorough studies have been made showing the importance of this character training to us as teachers. One of these tells us that of four thousand people who lost their jobs, only ten percent were discharged because of a deficiency in skill or ability.[1] The other ninety percent were fired because of some definite fault in character or personality. One firm[2] requires that its service department give applicants for positions a "first impression" test, not on knowledge or skills, but on such items as appearance, attitude, mental outlook and speech. If the applicant passes this test, he may proceed to the next one which is of his specific abilities.

According to investigations of this nature, personality plays a vital part in the success or failure of our graduates in the business world. Speaking conservatively, it may be said that the business man is at least as much interested in the personality make-up of his employee as he is in his abilities. It appears then that one of our aims as teachers of business subjects should be the cultivation of those character traits which we know to be desirable.

It is our purpose here to show how the subject of bookkeeping can be used as a vehicle for the development of accepted character and personality characteristics. Through a series of specific sample topics, it will be demonstrated how readily the bookkeeping curriculum lends itself to such training. All topics have been chosen from the New York City bookkeeping syllabus.

[1] Office Management Series No. 75, p. 75 "Selection and Training of Office Workers."
[2] E. I. duPont de Nemours & Co.

TOPIC 1—THE SALES INVOICE

The alert teacher of bookkeeping should not be satisfied merely with the teaching of the bookkeeping mechanics in connection with the sales invoice. This is too good an opportunity for character training to neglect. Here is a device which has been used successfully in class many times.

In the mimeographed invoice which is prepared for the lesson, we include, deliberately, an incorrect extension, i.e. 45 articles @ 3c=$1.25. We wait for some discerning student to discover the error. Invariably it will be detected. Now we proceed. What should the customer do upon receipt of this invoice if he discovers the error? What are our legal rights in this matter? Will the law penalize us for our mistake? If you pay the lesser amount, are you legally relieved of your obligation to pay the balance? What would you do if you were the customer? Why? Should you take advantage of our mistake? Why? Why not? How should you notify us of our error? How can we avoid making such errors in the future? What lessons have we learned from this incorrect invoice?

Usually, students respond readily and enthusiastically to such a dis-

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cussion. The class loses none of the technical knowledge it would receive in any good bookkeeping lesson and it receives, in addition, some valuable hints in proper conduct. It is sometimes amazing to learn the reactions of different students to different situations. In one class, a pupil thought that it was perfectly proper to take advantage of the error, if the amount was small. He conceded that it was dishonest where the error was an "important" one. Is it not vital that such a misconception of accepted behavior be corrected?

Topic 2—Sales Discount

The following questions may be put to the class in presenting this lesson. When should the customer take the discount? Suppose he deducts too much, what should we do? He deducts the discount *after* the discount period. Should we accept the smaller amount? Why? Why not? Can we insist, legally, on full payment? What is your opinion of the customer who tries to take unfair advantage of your terms? How would you handle such a situation? How would you notify the customer of your refusal to accept the smaller amount?

Topic 3—First Lesson on Accounts Receivable

Once more the teacher is provided with a fine opportunity for character training. This topic is a splendid one for a live discussion on the ethics involved in use of credit. Does the customer intend to pay? What is the effect on the seller if the buyer defaults? What happens to the business reputation of the buyer? Would you ask for a loan if you did not intend to repay it? Why? Why not? Is such a request ever justifiable? Suppose the lender is your father, your brother or a friend, would that make a difference?

Topic 4—Practice Set

Ordinarily, the class procedure for the practice set consists of a discussion and analysis of the difficult entries, the journalizing of all entries, posting, taking off a trial balance and the preparation of statements. This procedure is adequate from a bookkeeping standpoint. But what about the opportunities for character education? Is this type of work not well suited for stressing neatness, thoroughness, honesty, persistence, and the will to perfection?

Each student should be encouraged to compare his set with something he has done in the past. Is it better? In what respects? Is it a poorer piece of work? Why? Has the handwriting improved? Does this paper show more care than the previous one? Does the student think it advisable to repeat this practice set? Does the student think he is capable of better work? Is he proud to exhibit his efforts to other members of the class, to the teacher, to his family? It seems fair to assume that students gain something from this self analysis.

The four topics presented above illustrate what can be done with the ordinary bookkeeping lesson to make it serve also as a period of character training. It is the rare bookkeeping lesson which can not be similarly utilized.

Other topics which possess definite character training possibilities and a few points to stress in each are summarized below.

Topic 5—Meaning of Doing Business

Ethics of doing business; fair dealing; obligations to the public.

Topic 6—Personal Account

Thrift; honesty; obligations of partners to each other.

Topic 7—Statements

Honesty in preparation; carefulness; neatness; obligation to your employer, to the bank and to credit agencies.

Topic 8—Accounts Payable

Treat in a manner similar to accounts receivable.

Topic 9—The Trial Balance

Honesty, orderliness, accuracy, judgment.

Topics 10 and 11—Credit Memorandum, Sales and Purchase Returns and Allowances

Ethics of returning goods, avoiding sharp business practices.

Topic 12—Opening of Checking Account

Need for a good reputation, issuing of checks with sufficient balance in bank. Discuss legal penalties for intentional passing of "bad" check.

Topic 13—Insurance

Honesty and care in giving facts to insurer and in making claims.

Topic 14—Preparation of Bank Deposit

Procedure in connection with counterfeit coins and bills; arrangement of items to assist the bank teller; courtesy.

Topic 15—Drafts

Intention to pay the draft when accepting it, reliance of others upon you; effect upon your reputation if you do not meet the draft.

It should be understood that these illustrations are by no means all inclusive. No attempts have been made in that direction. Nevertheless, it is apparent from these few obviously adaptable lessons what may be done with the subject of bookkeeping.

No progressive teacher of bookkeeping, or of any other subject for that matter, would permit a teaching period to close without some definite personality or character education. The one question I wish to present is—Why not use, as a basis for such teaching, the subject matter itself?

Max E. Ostrover.
James Monroe High School.

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THE OBJECTIVES AND PRINCIPLES OF PROGRAM MAKING*

I. OBJECTIVES

A. To satisfy the educational needs of a maximum number of pupils in the most efficient way possible under given school conditions.

B. To provide conditions most conducive to effective and efficient teaching and learning.

C. To provide for adaptation to individual and group differences; mentally, physically, emotionally, socially, financially, and so forth.

D. To cause these objectives to be carried out with

(a) The minimum loss of effort, time, and energy of both pupil and teacher, and

(b) The most efficient and economical use of the teaching force for teaching, supervisory, and administrative functions.

II. PRINCIPLES

A. General

1. The master program must be so flexible, adjustable, and controllable, that unforeseen difficulties can be met and overcome.

2. Such control must be centralized in one person or agency.

3. The schedule maker must keep in touch with conditions within and outside the school to anticipate changes in subject enrollment.

4. The program maker must keep an accurate record of enrollment by subject, grade, sex, in previous terms.

5. The program maker must be able to interpret the record and predict therefrom changes in enrollment.

6. The program committee must proceed on the basic assumption that it should and will get the fullest coöperation from the administration, grade advisers, teachers, and pupils.

7. The procedure in scheduling should be from the inflexible to the flexible.

8. There should be little or no variation in principle and practice from term to term.

9. The master program should be so arranged that the maximum number of requests for special classes may be granted.

10. If a department, for any reason, runs some small classes, no other department should be asked to bear the burden of the larger classes that may result.

B. Specific

1. With regard to the pupil

a. The pupil deserves to have his classes kept as small and as equalized as possible.

b. Single or special sections should be so scheduled that pupils may be programmed for any combination of them without conflict.

c. Grades of subjects taught in one session should be so scheduled that a pupil in another session may be programmed for those grades with a minimum extension of his school day.

d. Where there are two or more sessions, a pupil should be able to take his complete program in his session.

e. As far as possible, a pupil's lunch period should come after, but not immediately preceding his gymnasium period.

f. When two courses of action present themselves, the one benefiting the greater number of pupils should be followed.

2. With regard to the teacher

a. Teachers should teach in one room as far as possible.

b. That room should be one suitable for teaching that subject.

c. The prefect teacher should teach in his room as far a possible.

d. Prefect rooms should be assigned with that end in mind.

e. Sections should be so scheduled that teachers do not have too many consecutive teaching periods or too many grades of work.

f. The chairman of a department should decide when and what his teachers will teach after considering the limitations owing to various administrative and extra-curricular assignments of his teachers.

g. Data necessary for preparing the master program should be gathered with the least possible inconvenience to pupil and teacher.

h. As far as possible, each teacher should teach in his own department.

SIMON L. BERMAN.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

*This is an outline of a talk delivered at a Chairmen's Conference.

THE FRENCH THEATRE

Teachers and students of French have an excellent opportunity for entertainment and instruction in the French theatre which is now in its second year.

An outstanding group, the *Théâtre des Quatre Saisons,* presents a repertory of French plays, modern and classic, with great competence and distinction. The classic plays already presented are: Moliere's *Precieuses,* Balzac's *Mercadet,* and

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Mérimée's *L'Occasion.*" The more modern plays include Vildrac's *Paquebot Tenacity,* Pirandello's *Chacun Sa Vérité,* and Jean Anouilh's *Le Bal des Voleurs.*

Those of us who are acquainted with the French theatre of Paris know that the productions of the French Theatre of New York are in no way inferior to the high standards of the leading companies.

Plays which still remain to be seen are Beaumarchais' *Le Barbier de Séville,* two 19th century plays, Labiche's *Les 37 Sous de M. Montaudoin* and *L'Enterrement* by Henry Monnier, and the famous work of the contemporary dramatist, Jean Giraudoux, *Siegfried.*

Many subscription tickets have been sold at the Barbizon-Plaza hotel where the plays are given. Single tickets are available for all the remaining plays, and special reductions are offered to students.

For the teacher of French this is a chance to renew a friendship with France and French culture. For third and fourth year students the plays are ideal opportunities for motivation, enjoyment and instruction.

N. PLUNG.
John Burroughs Junior H. S.

THE COMPOSITION TOPIC FOR TODAY

In the vocational schools, where much of the time and attention of the students is devoted to their trade work, the academic departments find it especially desirable to make use of a forceful approach and live motivation in the presentation of material. Teachers of academic subjects at the Central High School of Needle Trades have found that their particular care in this direction has been rewarded by good results.

The teaching of composition, which combines some of the most important values of English study, can easily bring discouraging results unless it is made lifelike and vital. The writers of this article have found a method which has proved successful in animating and vitalizing the writing of composition.

This method immediately abandons the conventional approaches of teaching composition by attacking the very focus of the composition itself, namely, the title, or the statement of the topic. Most young or normal sudents are disheartened by the need for analyzing their experiences and fitting a segment of them to some hackneyed and uninspiring title like "A Surprise," or "The Time I Was Fooled."

At the root of our method is the attempt to help students gather materials for composition by a more natural, associative process. Instead of using excessively generalized or excessively particularized titles or topics, we provide titles and focal sentences which exercise a direct emotional stimulus, are lively and colloquial, and at the same time contain a more or less definite idea.

For example, we may consider the simple key sentence: "I'll never try *that* again!"

Before the class lesson begins, the teacher writes this sentence (and also, preferably, another of the same type) on the blackboard. By the time the class is seated, the motivating power of the sentences will probably have begun to take effect. It is now necessary only for the teacher to read the first sentence and ask, "What does that make you think of?"

The brighter students immediately can make definite associations with the sentence they have just seen and heard. One may tell about a stolen ride which ended in near-disaster. Another may be reminded of her mother's wrath when she was slow in shopping for dinner; another of an experience on an amateur show; another of a sleigh-ride down a dangerous hill; another of his reception when he "crashed" a party; another of the bet he made with a friend that he could drink more Pepsi-colas in less time. More and more ideas will be accumulated in a rush by the class. Sometimes the ideas are amazingly varied, covering the most unsuspected range of experiences. Always it is the task of the teacher to help draw out the best details in each story, emphasizing what is lively and interesting, and trying to discover by means of association good things that students may not be able to recall by themselves. Speed and good humor are essential in the development, for once the class catches the mood of the teacher, their ideas will be better and more free-flowing. The same development is used with the second sentence on the board.

When most of the students have gotten ideas, the writing begins. The colloquial quality of the key sentences should help to prime the flow of the student's own words. The teacher goes about the room, helping the slower ones who can neither get their own ideas nor make use of those given by their classmates. It may sometimes even be necessary for the teacher to supply ideas, but the pupil himself will develop them and set them down; in this way the important end will be gained—actual composition construction.

The motivating effect of this method is cumulative, for familiarity with it helps to quicken the associative powers of the students. Of course, the composition keys should be varied. Some of them should be devised to act as first sentences; others may be Key Sentences, designed to be used anywhere in the composition. A third variation is the suggestive title, built along the same lines as the sentences.

In preparing these keys, one must remember that they should appeal to the emotions: joy, surprise, embarrassment, regret, triumph, hero-worship, pity, love of fellow-man.

To recapitulate: 1. The titles and

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sentences may be colloquial. This quality sets the pupil's own language flowing more naturally. 2. They should have a direct emotional appeal. 3. They should call forth ideas challengingly, but the phrasing should be indefinite enough to evoke a variety of associations.

The following Key Sentences and Titles have been used and have proved successful. Of course, in using these suggestions, teachers may find methods which are more suitable to their needs than those outlined above.

Key Sentences

1. The moment I saw my friend's face I knew something important had happened.
2. She stamped out of the house, banging the door violently after her. (Why?)
3. Every time I think of it, I have to laugh.
4. Now, there's the kind of job I'd like to have.
5. Oh, it's so hard to do without her now. (Also, "him" "them" "it.")
6. When I learned that, I could have dropped.
7. What's going on here, anyway?
8. Well, you asked for it, didn't you?
9. "So what," he said in his usual rough way.
10. No wonder that boy is like that!
11. She sighed a deep sigh and said, "Ah, that's the kind of life I'd like to lead."
12. "And now leave me alone!" he cried out at last.
13. It was so different from what I had imagined.
14. When I first tried it, it looked very hard.
15. Oh, it all seems so useless.
16. I don't like to be mean or catty, but.....
17. And I thought I had planned the perfect alibi.
18. He seemed the kind of person I would like to know better.
19. "I can't stand it any longer, I can't!"
20. The last time I was left alone, I really amused myself a lot.
21. He should have known better than to do such a thing.
22. He has no one to blame but himself.
23. I saw it all with my own eyes.
24. Queer thing, the way people get to be great friends.
25. Weren't you young yourself once?
26. There's something very suspicious going on.
27. Why must things be like that; why should.....and why should.....?
28. It certainly is a misfortune to be the youngest (oldest, only, etc.) one in the family.
29. Ah, yes, that's what they always say.
30. The people back where I come from, (or, around my way).....
31. A second meeting showed me an altogether different side of him.
32. Whenever relatives (my favorite uncle, friends, neighbors,) come, things go crazy at home.
33. I just had to tell it to somebody, or burst.
34. I'd go there again tomorrow if I could.
35. I sometimes wish I were dead.
36. I wish I were in her place.
37. I know I'm very young, but I have ideas of my own—good ideas, too.
38. I was never so insulted in my life.
39. Why does it always have to be me?
40. Was my face red!
41. What a surprise she got when she came home!
42. That girl has all the luck! (boy, man, star, athlete, child, etc.)
43. My, did she fall for it.
44. How dreadful! or, What a dreadful thing!
45. And then I saw red!
46. Oh, why was I ever born!
47. They can't seem to make head or tail of it.
48. And I won't take "No" for an answer.
49. That's the last we ever heard of it.
50. You can't believe everything you hear, you know.
51. And that's what happened to my quiet evening at home.
52. They're getting away with murder.
53. I thought they'd never go home.
54. Can I ever forget the day on which.....
55. What a run-around I got that time.
56. We had it all figured out beforehand.
57. Come and get it!
58. I'd never seen the house look like that before.
59. No wonder I was mad all through.
60. I'll never forget the look on his face.
61. Oh, the pity of it.
62. So much to be done and not much time to do it in.
63. It's all over now.
64. I guess it takes all kinds of people to make a world.
65. And then everything happened at once.
66. I can just see him ten years from now.
67. You have to expect things like that in *city* life. (country, farm, sports).
68. How I love people who know it all!
69. That's my idea of a real hero, (a great achievement).
70. You feel the difference the second you walk in.
71. Now I know just what I want.
72. I never want to see him again as long as I live.
73. After all, there's no place like home.
74. That's what I call a busy day.
75. What more can a person wish for in life?
76. I can't tell you how *glad* I am! (sorry, distressed, eager).
77. All my trust in humanity is gone.
78. You'd better watch your step from now on.
79. Oh, I wish I were anywhere else in the wide world.
80. And it did him a world of good, too.
81. Around *our way* things are done differently. (in my neighborhood; one hundred years from now).
82. I daren't say a word about it to anyone.
83. I'll be hanged if I let such a thing happen!
84. Just wait till he hears about this.
85. Just think how lucky she was!
86. Well, that's how I do things.
87. It makes you feel rotten to try hard and then to lose out.
88. What a difference it makes in her!
89. How that woman scrimps and saves!
90. If it's good enough for....., it's good enough for me.
91. It's about time something was done about it.
92. That's no way to do things.
93. That boy will surely make good.
94. It's pretty hard to make up your mind about a thing like that.
95. Why, it's the greatest thing that ever happened to him! (her, the city.)
96. Oh, what can have happened?
97. What a world of good it did him.
98. You've got to have a place to live in, don't you? (play in, rest.)
99. I can remember it as though it were yesterday.
100. Do you wonder I changed my mind?

Composition Topics

1. Help! Help!
2. At Last It Has Come True.
3. Lord, How Changed!
4. I Know - Now Just What Is Wanted.
5. Help Wanted .....Male.
6. Fire! Fire!
7. What Won't People Do Next?
8. What Have They to Live for Anyway?
9. Just Leave It to Me.
10. Anything for a Laugh.
11. Move On, There; Keep Moving!
12. The Chance of a Lifetime (Gone).
13. It's All Over at Last.
14. If I Had It to Do Over Again.
15. If I Only Had the Money.
16. Watch Your Step.
17. —And Now There's Nothing (Something) to Kick About.
18. That's How It Happens in Real Life.
19. What a Mean Trick!
20. Oh, For Just One More Chance!
21. —And Nothing Is Ever Done About It?
22. Left—For Parts Unknown.
23. Away from It All!
24. Well, What Next?
25. Now, They'll Really Be Able to Live.
26. Never Again for Me.
27. If Only I Had the Same Chance!
28. No Use Talking About It Any More.
29. What a Time We Had!
30. Why Not Try Just Once More?

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31. Won't You Help Out, Too?
32. Is There Any Good Reason for It?
33. Isn't That Too Bad?
34. They Didn't Believe I Could Do It.
35. It's Not Too Late, Even Yet.
36. I Daren't Say a Word About It to Anyone.
37. Let Me Alone!
38. Now Everyone's Scared Stiff of Him.
39. Things Are Not So Well with Us.
40. Dead!
41. Run! Run!
42. Scoop!
43. Faster! Faster!
44. Things Don't Always Turn Out the Way You Expect Them To.
45. It All Seems So Useless.
46. How Can a Person Let His Family Down?
47. What a Life!
48. How Sorry I Am!
49. That's My Story.
50. Is It Any Wonder?
51. Why Not Speak Up?
52. And Now Hear My Side.
53. Ah, Something for Nothing.
54. Alas, Too Late.
55. If It Isn't One Thing, It's Another.
56. Come, Snap Out of It!
57. Rich Overnight.
58. Nothing Pleases People More.
59. It Is Never Too Late.
60. The Moment Draws Nearer and Nearer.
61. Why Shouldn't I Be Grateful?
62. All That Work for Nothing!
63. Do Things Really Happen That Way?
64. I Have a Brilliant Idea.
65. Just for the Fun of It.
66. What a Nuisance for Everyone.
67. Hurry Up! Hurry Up!
68. Welcome Home Again.
69. I'll Show All of You.
70. When a Fellow Needs a Friend.
71. What's the Rush About?
72. It's Too Late Now.
73. Boy! Did That Go Over Big!
74. So Small a Thing to Make So Much Trouble!
75. What Have We Done!
76. —And Still the Stars Look Calmly Down.
77. A Little.....of My Own (Car, store, home, business).
78. Let Me Tell You How to Run Things Right (World, town, school, country).
79. Hands Off!
80. Work! Work! Work!
81. Talk! Talk! Talk!
82. Does It Go On Forever?
83. You Never Can Tell.
84. Catch Me Trying That Again.
85. Riffraff, eh?
86. It All Seems So Useless!
87. No Help Wanted.
88. There's Just No Pleasing Everybody.
89. Lord, What Fools People Are.
90. No Back-Talk!
91. Some of the Fellows Around My Way.
92. What's Up?
93. Surprise! Surprise!
94. Can You Believe That?
95. It All Started Out of Nothing.
96. —And We Trusted Them So!
97. He Did It for Their Sake.
98. Thank Heavens, That's Over!
99. There Will Come a Better Time (for Them).
100. You Can't Get Away With It.
101. Nice Work!
102. It Doesn't Matter Now, One Way or the Other (Either Way).
103. Just Wait Until They Get Back!
104. I'd Tell Him a Thing or Two!
105. I'll Never Give Up!
106. How Different Things Are Now!
107. What Is the World Coming To, Anyway?
108. Just an Ordinary Fellow, But.....
109. Count Us Out of Such Doings.
110. It's the Same the Whole World Over.
111. No Good Can Possibly Come of It.
112. I Couldn't Believe My Own Eyes.
113. All Is Now Well Again.
114. People Are Never Satisfied.
115. What Some People Won't Do for Money!
116. Gorgeous (mysterious, frightful, pitiful) Is No Word for It!
117. You Can't Be Too Careful These Days.
118. And Look At Him Now.
119. Throw Them Out!
120. What More Can Anyone Ask?
121. How That Story Has Grown!
122. "It's For Your Own Good."
123. Ah!
124. Sometime, Somewhere.

MILTON DICKMAN.
SIMON CERTNER.
Central High School of Needle Trades, New York City.

CHECK-LIST FOR OFFICERS AND ADVISERS OF EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

The accompanying questions attempt to cover various phases of the club program. It is suggested that you go over this check-list for the purpose of determining how your club would rank if answers to these questions were requested.

It is hoped that the critical appraisal resulting from a study of this check-list will cause the role of extra-curricular activities in the lives of our students to be even more meaningful than it has been in the past.

I—ROUTINE MATTERS

1. Has the club been granted a charter by the G. O.?
2. Is the club charter prominently displayed or is it just "filed away"?
3. Does the club have its own Bulletin Board (or corner of a Departmental Bulletin Board)?
4. Is most effective use made of the Bulletin Board?
5. Have all club members joined the General Organization?
6. Are parent consent cards on file for each member?
7. Does the club have a simple working constitution and set of by-laws?
8. Is a club minutes' book kept?
9. Are club membership and attendance records kept?
10. Does the club spend any money before the G. O. has granted it an appropriation?
11. Has your club reserved a special room to be used for a party, motion picture or slides showing, musical program (or is waiting for the last minute only to find the room in use)?

II—THE CLUB ATMOSPHERE

1. Is personal contact within the group possible?
2. Are the amenities of group courtesy followed at meetings?
3. Are members enthusiastic?
4. Are members coöperative or are they suspicious of one another?
5. Do members feel "at home" at the meeting?
6. Are members friendly?
7. Are members tolerant of others with differing political, economic, or religious views?
8. Are members afforded an opportunity to exchange experiences.
9. Do members extend their friendship beyond club meeting hours?

III—MEMBERSHIP

1. Is the group too large?
2. Is the group too small?
3. Do members return the following term?
4. Are lower termers attracted?
5. Do new faces join the ranks?
6. Is there a large turnover in the club membership?
7. Is the club obliged to resort to a "waiting list"?

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8. Do brothers and sisters of former members join?

IV—MEETINGS

1. Are meetings held too frequently?
2. Are meetings held too infrequently?
3. Does the time scheduled for meetings conflict with that of another club likely to attract the same type of student?
4. Do meetings start promptly?
5. Are meetings drawn-out affairs?
6. Are meetings conducted according to parliamentary procedure?
7. Are meetings obstructed by too much parliamentary procedure?
8. Does the "business" part of the program take up the entire meeting?
9. Do members attend regularly?
10. Are "open meetings" ever held?
11. Are meetings carefully planned?
    by the students?
    by the faculty adviser?
12. Is the meeting time monopolized by one or two members?
13. Do members bring their friends to meetings?
14. Do members look forward to club meetings?
15. Is the meeting room conductive to most effective club work?
16. Does the faculty adviser look forward to club meetings?

V—LEADERSHIP

1. Are there too many officers?
2. Are there too few officers?
3. Do student officers take charge of the meeting?
4. Is the club run by a "clique"?
5. Are matters delegated to committees for analysis and report to the group?
6. Do committees function or are they merely "on paper"?
7. Do committees have definite tasks?
8. Do the same people comprise all committees?
9. Are younger members afforded opportunities for leadership?
10. Have standing committees worked out a definite routine and statement of their procedure which would guide their successes more expeditiously?

VI—ACTIVITIES

1. Is variety attempted in the work of the club?
2. Is any part of the club program creative?
3. Has the club developed the habit of planning and executing a project around which the work of an entire term (or year) revolves?
4. Does the club have a coöperative library of its own?
5. Does the club stage a "social" once in a while?
6. Has the club ever availed itself of an assembly program?
7. Has the club ever availed itself of the exhibition cases in the corridors?
8. Are policies laid down by the membership or by the faculty advisers?
9. Does the club coöperate with other clubs on some specific project?
10. Does the club avail itself of all publicity possible?
11. Is the club known throughout the school?
12. Do members spend time at home planning or preparing club activities?
13. Is the club of service to the school?
14. Is the school of service to the club?
15. Do all members participate in the club activities?

I. DAVID SATLOW.
Bushwick High School.

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND NOTES

A FORUM OF RADIO EXPERIENCES

The National Council of Teachers of English is preparing to issue a volume on Radio and the English Teacher. This will replace the brochure with the same title issued by the Council about a year ago, the supply of which is exhausted. It will endeavor to orientate teachers in this new and important field and to provide them with practical procedures.

The most important section of the book will be one called "An Experience Forum: A Record of Experiments and Projects." In this will appear as many first-hand accounts as can be obtained of direct use of radio in English classes.

If you have made use of radio, will you contribute? Prepare a summary of your experiment or project and send it to Max J. Herzberg, Chairman of the Radio Committee, at Weequahic High School, Newark, New Jersey.

A LETTER TO THE EDITOR ON THE "OPEN LETTER TO ADOLF HITLER"

52-10 94th Street,
Elmhurst, N. Y.
March 5, 1939.

The Editor of "HIGH POINTS,"
Board of Education,
500 Park Avenue,
New York.

Dear Sir:

Since you saw fit to present to your teacher-readers, under "Educational News" the "Open Letter to Adolf Hitler" from the Metropolitan Chapter of the A. A. T. G., I demand that you also publish the following information regarding the circumstances which will show that it was the sentiment of a small group and *not* unanimous, nor representative of the American

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Association of Teachers of German.

On the day before Thanksgiving the members of the Association received a postcard, informing them of a special meeting to be held that Sunday (of the Thanksgiving holiday), "to take a definite stand on recent events in Germany."

Naturally, only persons desiring such a stand would be present.

The *regular* meeting had been scheduled for Saturday, December 10, less than two weeks off. The instigators of the postcard knew that an open letter to Hitler would get no unanimous approval at the *regular* meeting.

Note that the *special* meeting was called for a Sunday afternoon —an odd time for teachers to conduct business.

Certainly the Association cannot be quoted as unanimously passing an action taken by a group actuated by a *non-professional* desire.

The whole thing is fraudulent, and its presentation as "Educational News" is preposterous!

Very truly yours,

MRS. MARIE FUHRMANN.

Member of the A. A. T. G.

The *National Association of Audubon Societies* again offers membership privileges to boys and girls of school age. Groups of at least ten children each may form Junior Audubon Clubs.

All clubs get *News on the Wing*, the Junior Audubon Clubs' own newspaper. In addition, clubs of twenty-five or more members receive during the school year a free subscription to *Bird-Lore*, the official bi-monthly publication of the *National Association of Audubon Societies*. Membership in the Junior Audubon Clubs costs each child only ten cents a year.

Teachers and leaders may obtain from the *National Association of Audubon Societies* educational pamphlets, charts, books, slides and motion pictures dealing with birds and animals and the conservation of our country's natural resources. Price lists will be sent on request. Write to the *National Association of Audubon Societies*, 1006 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y.

NEW USAGE STUDY JUSTIFIES MANY DISPUTABLE EXPRESSIONS

When several years ago, the National Council of Teachers of English published *Current English Usage*, a survey made by the late Sterling A. Leonard and his associates—which revealed that many teachers of English and speech, linguists, editors, lexicographers, and other well-educated persons approved certain expressions usually condemned by grammars—various journalists raised a hue and cry. "English teachers are lowering their standards," they proclaimed. "Teachers have surrendered to careless speech."

Now, two language researchers, Albert H. Marckwardt of the University of Michigan and Fred G. Walcott of the University's high school, have checked the findings of *Current English Usage* with the *Oxford Dictionary* and its *Supplement*, the second edition of *Webster's New International Dictionary*, and a few other recognized authorities. Their study, recently published by the National Council of Teachers of English under the title, *Facts About Current English Usage*,[1] shows that the Leonard survey was far more conservative than dictionaries and the example of high-ranking writers, classical and modern, would encourage any one to be.

"You'd better go slow (on a curve)," for instance, was placed by the Leonard jury among "established usages," to the pain of some editorial writers. Yet, according to this new study *slow* has been used as an adverb at least since 1500, and the users include Shakespeare, Milton, Byron, and Thackeray. So it does not appear that teachers who fail to correct their students for speaking of "driving slow" are being over-influenced by modern road signs.

The admission of "healthy climate" to the category of established usages was another shock for some critics. Yet the *Oxford Dictionary* lists this use of the word with examples from 1552 to 1871.

"None of them are here" was ranked as a disputable usage by the Leonard report, but the present study reveals that *none* with a plural verb has been in use since 888. "Try and get it," which is usually frowned upon by teachers, is shown to have been used by such reputable writers as Milton and Coleridge, as well as by many others. "I wish I was wonderful" did not, apparently, seem wrong to Defoe, Swift, Fielding, Austen, Byron, Marryat, Thackeray, Dickens, Hardy, Meredith, Wilde, and others. And so on with many more supposedly ungrammatical locutions.

Nearly all the expressions ranked as disputable in the Leonard inquiry, the authors of Facts About Current English Usage point out, are recorded as having arisen in past centuries, twenty-four of them before 1500. "In other words," they add, "the expressions about which puristic objections center are not so much neologisms as they are old forms and usages of the language which are struggling to survive. Finally it is evident that this analysis should dispose once and for all of the journalistic cry of heresy and radicalism so frequently raised against the Leonard report. A survey of fact rather than of opinion would, in all probability, have increased the number of established usages from a meager 71 to 177."

For the benefit of those who are not familiar with the original Leonard monograph (it has been

[1] *Facts About Current English Usage* by Albert H. Marckwardt and Fred G. Walcott, a publication of the National Council of Teachers of English. New York: D. Appleton-Century & Company, $.90.

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out of print for two years), the grammar section is included in the new usage study. Teachers will find the report and the analysis of it, conveniently printed in one small volume, valuable to them both in their teaching and in their own use of the mother tongue.

REVIEWS

DEVELOPING A HIGH SCHOOL COURSE ADAPTED TO THE DIFFERENTIATED NEEDS OF BOYS AND GIRLS

By Margery Stewart Gillson, Ph.D., Teachers College, Columbia.

Teachers of the sciences have long felt the need for differentiated courses of study based on the varying needs of the pupils in their charge. The rapid increase in the numbers of pupils attending the secondary schools has served only to multiply these variations. Science teachers have attempted from time to time to solve the problem of adjusting subject matter to pupils.

Dr. Gillson's study is intended to shed additional light. Utility of the subject in adult life is taken as the principal criterion for determining subject matter content. With this in mind she addressed a questionnnaire to a large number of persons of wide interests, of which over six hundred responded, to discover which of the chemical principles and facts they have found useful. A check on the results of the questionnaire was made by an examination of the nature of the questions sent in to a national magazine, and by a study of the subjects selected by pupils throughout the country competing in a prize essay contest in chemistry conducted by the American Chemical Society.

The findings of Dr. Gillson tend to confirm what many have suspected. Women are in the main interested in problems of the home, while men's interests lie in the direction of industrial processes. A large body of subject matter is common to the interests of both. Courses of study should tend to be more practical than theoretical. The author, however, would include theoretical fundamentals, even though not rated very highly, if they are essential to understanding and comprehension. A number of criteria that are outgrowths of this study are listed, and are intended to be of aid to the prospective curriculum maker.

One wonders whether practical utility in adult life should be the sole criterion upon which to base a course of study. What of the cultural values of the science? Are they to be neglected? If the ability to understand and apply the scientific method is to be achieved will the selection of subject matter based solely on utility preclude other topics that lend themselves better toward this end? It is to be regretted that Dr. Gillson did not attempt to discover to what extent the study of chemistry encourages adults to use the scientific method.

MICHAEL N. IDELSON.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

ENRICHED TEACHING OF MATHEMATICS IN THE JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Revised Edition. By Woodring and Sanford. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

The ever growing desire to connect mathematics with real situations and to apply the subject to business, economics, industry, and so forth, has resulted in a definite need for a low cost reference book listing materials that have been actually tried out in the classroom.

A few years ago the first edition of such a book was compiled to satisfy such a frequently expressed need. However, the large quantity of materials useful in the teaching of high school mathematics which has appeared since the publication of the first edition has necessitated a thorough rewriting, and has resulted in this revised edition.

In this new edition we find that the materials of the first edition have undergone careful scrutiny and obsolete and unavailable items have been eliminated, while a number of most helpful sources have been added. As a matter of fact the extent of the changes is greater than a cursory examination or comparison of the two editions would indicate. Some of the main divisions of the teaching references are:

Materials for Units in Arithmetic.

Materials for Units in Intuitive Geometry.

Materials for Units in Numerical Trigonometry and Surveying.

Materials for Units in Algebra.

Materials for Units in Demonstrative Geometry.

However, provision is made for materials for Assemblies, Mathematics Clubs, Excursions, Classroom Equipment, Pictures and Exhibits, History of Mathematics, and Periodicals.

For each reference we find conveniently arranged, the name and address of the publisher together with the current price.

A blank page is inserted at the end of each major division in order that notes and new materials may be added from time to time.

A complete index will enable the user to find items and related materials easily and quickly.

A progressive department of mathematics cannot afford to be without this handy reference.

HENRY H. SHANHOLT.
Abraham Lincoln High School, Brooklyn.

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TEACHING CREATIVE WRITING

By Lawrence H. Conrad. D. Appleton-Century. $1.00.

From the extensive investigations of the Committee on Secondary School Curriculum of the Progressive Education Association there has emerged, among many other fine things, this new study by Dr. Conrad. It establishes basic principles in the teaching of creative writing, discusses their applications to all groups in the high school, and offers a variety of practical techniques for the stimulating of writing.

Dr. Conrad distinguishes creative writing from other types of literary effort. It is deeply correlated with the students' inner life. It provides release, explores the consciousness, and organizes experiences. A process of "production" rather than "reproduction," Dr. Conrad calls it.

Dr. Conrad feels that the informal class setting is most conducive to creative writing though he concedes that the more conventional classroom has possibilities, too. Among the suggestions that he makes is one that has been oft reiterated by "creativists," but it will bear repetition. The student must be made to feel that what he is writing has value for its own sake and is not a snare for some ulterior pedagogical purpose.

The volume has some very pertinent and usable things to say about techniques for providing experiences that will lead to creative writing, methods of installing and conducting a creative writing course, reading-writing sessions, and so forth.

This is a practical, sensible, realistic treatment of a field in which clear thinking and accurate statement are the exception rather than the rule. The style is restrained as the suggestions are sober and down-to-earth. Creative writing is tackled as a real problem, a vital activity meriting the serious consideration of all teachers of English. There are no false emphases, no roseate promises here.

The lush rhetoric and Dionysiac fervor of the earlier "creativists" is wholly absent from this text. We commend it to your attention as one of the few sane treatises in this highly unstable area.

A. H. Lass.

WHAT MAKES A BOOK READABLE

By Wm. S. Gray and B. E. Leary, University of Chicago Press. $3.00.

The readable book for adults of limited reading ability (the subjects of this initial study) must, according to findings of Drs. Gray and Leary, measure up to twenty-four criteria, listed under four separate categories: format, general features of organization, style of expression and presentation, and content. These criteria were arrived at through surveys of current opinion of what enters into making a book easy or difficult. About 1700 adults posed for the composite profile that emerges from this work.

This is an excellent foundation study but little more than that, in spite of its imposing array of statistics and detailed tabulations. Its tentative conclusions have some validity for secondary education particularly with reference to the non-academically-minded pupil. The analysis of structural and syntactical elements which add to the difficulty of reading materials ought to prove highly valuable for those by now almost overmastered by the task of choosing required and supplementary readings for the intellectually impoverished. A caution is necessary at this point. Mere technical complexity of a passage does not necessarily make it unreadable. Nor does grammatical simplicity guarantee comprehension *ipso facto*. This may, in some degree, explain why pupils whose reading quotient is far below grade batten on pulp stories (by no means simply written although conforming to primitive behavior patterns) and yet find themselves utterly incapable of explaining Wordsworth's monosyllabic sequence about the child's being father of the man. In this regard, this study is bound to mislead many, for it deals only with material essentially measurable, reducible to figures of some kind. It disregards, almost in toto, such matters as experiential background, pupil interest, and other similar factors which contribute very significantly to the readability of a book. This does not mean that books for pupil use are not to be scanned for attractive format, sprightly and simple writing, clear and logical organization of material. It does mean, however, that a book may pass all these rigid tests and yet fail to speak intelligibly to our pupils. For our slow readers especially, it is necessary to consider matters such as intrinsic interest of content possibly even above stylistic lucidity. A compelling tale well told will catch and hold the student even if prepositional phrases do appear out of natural order.

What the slow reader wants, (he gets it himself if we don't give it to him) is stuff that is readable because it gets inside of him and talks to his master impulses in some way. Books are, in the main, dull and incomprehensible to the pupil because they do not capture his interests, not because they are syntactically weird or obscure. This fundamental point has of late been lost to many text-book makers who have insisted that difficult and remote material sufficiently watered and simplified will take the place of meaningful reading experiences.

Remedial reading drill books do not fall under this head. They are distinctly and frankly clinical in scope and intent. The profession owes much to the zealous and painstaking work that has come out of the laboratory to make whole the crippled. But this is all

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basically negative. It corrects deficiencies, builds new skills. But it does not supply the cue and motive for future reading. Only readable, really readable not just simplified material will meet this need: to make readers out of our alleged dullards. Precious little of this nature has appeared. And what has come to us, in a sense defeats the true purposes of our teaching which is to broaden the intellectual grip of our pupils, deepen and refine their sensibilities, and make them a living part of the past as well as the present. The books that are being supplied for the slow reader are uniformly in the fields of adventure, and romance (sometimes extraordinarily shoddy). This is the path of least resistance and many are taking it uncritically. While our other groups are being trained to think clearly, to feel deeply and sensitively, to relive those great literary experiences which are the right of every human being, the slow reader is having his imaginative and intellectual growth stunted by being fed, term in and term out, on the sort of pap which is just one step removed from *Doc Savage, Western Stories, Amazing Stories, G-Men Stories,* and other similar literary opiates.

Thus reading for its own sake, regardless of the soundness of the ultimate outcomes, is beginning to receive pedagogical sanction. Carefully graded experiences in literature designed to produce fuller, richer, more intelligent human beings are nowhere available for our slow pupils. A study like the one under review does not help us much for it enunciates no philosophy. It merely records some interesting facts. What is needed is a magna charta for the underprivileged, and teachers and publishers honest and courageous enough to give the slow reader an opportunity to grow into normalcy instead of intensifying his abnormalities.

It will come in time, we predict. And it will not be long before educators, particularly teachers of English, will come to realize that they have been pious dupes, supinely surrendering against the dictates of their better instincts and in violation of the basic objectives and traditions of their profession.

There is no dispute on this point. The slow pupil is not getting a square deal. And he will continue to be cheated of his heritage until we are willing to face the magnitude of his problems honestly and with all the resources at our command. Thus far, we have either neglected him entirely, or have, under the guise of a pupil-centered curriculum, depraved his tastes, and gyved his intellect by pandering to his prejudices and his inchoate and largely misunderstood desires.

A. H. L.

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REMEDIAL INSTRUCTION IN ENGLISH*

An extensive awareness of the problem of reading has made itself manifest in recent years. This awareness led the National Society for the Study of Education to issue two reports on "The Teaching of Reading." The 36th Yearbook (1937) of the National Society sets forth, among others, the following basic principles underlying its committee's recommendations.

1. As a result of recent social changes and the expansion of the curriculum, the actual and potential value of reading, both in and out of school, is far greater today than formerly.

2. If schooling is to contribute more largely in the future than in the past to intelligent self-direction and social progress, it is imperative that children and young people acquire greater independence and efficiency in reading.

3. Paralleling the need for greater independence and efficiency in reading is the imperative need of abundant materials which can be read with ease and understanding by those at different levels of advancement from the primary grades to adulthood.

In February 1938, the High School Division inaugurated a program of remedial instruction in English for all entering pupils who, on selected standardized tests, showed reading deficiencies and retardation. This program requires our constant and earnest attention in order that we may conduct it as effectively and intelligently as the conditions demand. This conference of First Assistants in English has been called for the express purpose of considering the various aspects of the program, to afford an opportunity to pool our experiences, and to indicate some of the materials available for these pupils. I hope that after the brief presentations of four aspects of the problem of remedial instruction, we shall have time for discussion, as well as for examination of the books on display here. The Division is ready to assist any chairman to secure the necessary materials of instruction, and to assist in the development of the program in any school.

In recent months, I have visited classes in remedial reading, conducted under our program, rather intensively. If I were asked to characterize the work—and please remember that all generalizations of this kind are bound to be untrue to some degree—I would say that there is a disproportionate share of time and energy being devoted to techniques and formalized methodology, to measuring

* A talk presented at a meeting of First Assistants in English on March 30, 1939.

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rates, to keeping progress charts, to the use of "work" books rather than to a "free" reading program. Many pupils are poor readers because they don't read rather than because they can't read. There is, of course, some need for remedial techniques; not as much, I suspect, as can be observed now in vogue.

In one school, I observed a chairman wheeling a book-truck, loaded with thirty different titles, to the classroom of a teacher. In less than five minutes, the books had been snatched up by an eager group of readers. In another class, an energetic young teacher entered the room with her arms laden with magazines. By a stimulating thought or a motivating question, eager hands reached out to grasp the treasured item. And the disappointment of those who failed to secure the reading materials was perfectly evident. In still another case, I observed and listened attentively to a very retarded class, animatedly discussing Mark Twain's "Tom Sawyer."

These observations were in delightful contrast to the creaking machinery of classes measuring their rates, and writing answers to the inevitable ten questions. Now it is obvious, too, that teachers need guidance in solving their problem of handling these classes. We hope that this program of prepared presentations by the speakers who follow will, in some measure, help chairmen to direct the attack upon a serious problem. The training of teachers is a grave responsibility devolving upon chairmen. By your coöperation and interest, I am confident that much can be achieved.

DAVID H. MOSKOWITZ.
Assistant Superintendent.

TENDENCIES AND PRACTICES IN THE TEACHING OF READING IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS*

During the past four years, retarded readers organized in small class groups in about twenty high schools have been receiving instruction in reading from federal workers. The work of these teachers has been supervised in these schools by regular members of the high school staff. Periodic reports of the results of this joint undertaking by the Board of Education and the Works Progress Administration have been published.

Largely as a result of the success of this special remedial reading venture, in February 1938, the High School Division initiated its own program of remedial reading. Incoming pupils from the elementary schools who have revealed retardation of one year or more have been placed in special English classes under regularly licensed teachers. In the main, the normal work of the ninth year is carried on in these classes, but instructional emphasis is placed on reading. For more than a year now this program has been under way. It might be profitable at this time to look backward to see what lessons may be drawn from the experiences of the W.P.A. workers and the regular staff supervisors engaged in this four-year-old program, particularly since many of their findings coincide with those resulting from professional researches undertaken in the field.

RAPID READING

The tendency on the part of a large number of teachers to promote speed in reading is one to be deplored. Even if rapid reading were a desirable objective of remedial instruction in reading, it seems perfectly obvious that training pupils to read rapidly is like putting the cart before the horse. It is questionable, in the first place, whether pupils should be taught to read rapidly. Many deficient readers have a reading status typical of pupils in the sixth and seventh grades. Such pupils can hardly be said to walk properly in reading. They stumble, they falter, they do not walk straight, they do not turn corners properly. Frequently their reading legs give way before them. Yet it is this type of pupil that many teachers are attempting to convert into rapid readers.

Research workers have discovered that many students who read well read more quickly than students whose reading is deficient in many ways. Unfortunately, teachers have jumped to the conclusion that the way to promote efficient reading is to increase speed in reading. This assumption is obviously fallacious. Slow reading is not a cause but rather a result of poor reading. The way to increase the reading rate is to improve comprehension. Rapid reading as such is not necessarily a desirable goal of any remedial reading program. But if the rate of reading is to be increased, it cannot be accomplished effectively through mechanical exercises. The reading rate of retarded readers can be increased only through such natural means as teaching them how to select subordinate from main ideas, how to note details, how to choose the central idea of a selection, how to draw proper inferences, and how to build up an extensive vocabulary. In short, pupils should be taught how to attack the various thinking problems which confront them in their textual reading.

RHYTHMICAL READING

The mere novelty of a number of mechanical instruments which have appeared on the educational

* A talk presented at a meeting of First Assistants in English on March 30, 1939.

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scene has aroused in many teachers a desire to do something about the faulty eye movements of deficient readers in their classes. It should be pointed out, however, that faulty eye movements, like slow reading, are symptoms and not causes of fundamental difficulties in reading. As most of us have known for a long time, the eyes move along the text line in a series of lightning-like shifts and pauses. The shifts are executed so rapidly that the eyes see nothing until they come to rest. These pauses are called fixations, during which comprehension takes place. It is interesting to point out, however, that not more than five percent of the total reading time is required for the eyes to make the shifts between fixations. The remainder of the reading time is occupied with perceptual activities. It has been discovered that efficient readers make eye movements which are regular and somewhat rhythmic. On the other hand, it has been found that the reading of inefficient readers is characterized by many pauses. The eyes take many steps, they frequently retrace, they move slowly, and they frequently even lose their way. On the whole the eye movements of these poor readers are neither regular nor rhythmic.

It is at this point that many teachers make a fatal error. They attempt in various ways to achieve this effect of regularity and rhythm. They give their pupils exercises in eye-hopping; they put them through eye-hop drills in reading text-books, and with the metronoscope, which is nothing more than the old flash-card turned robot. If teachers realized that the various faulty eye movements revealed by poor readers were merely symptoms and not causes of basic difficulties, they would abandon these formal corrective procedures, which are hardly calculated to make pupils want to read and which no research study has indicated to be even moderately effective.

Teachers should not concern themselves at all with improving the optical agility of pupils in that part of the reading act which takes up only 5% of the total reading time. They should rather concern themselves with improving their pupils' performance during the remaining 95% of the reading time. It is during this lengthy period that the pupils are engaged in the thought-getting process; and it is because they are having difficulty with words and phrases that they falter, retrace their reading steps, or lose their way. The eye movements of poor readers are irregular and halting not because these pupils have failed to receive adequate training in hopping nimbly from one unit of a text line to another and from line to line, but because these pupils do not and cannot assimilate the thought successfully. It is for this reason that they re-read and pause so frequently.

If teachers increased the vocabulary resources of these pupils; if teachers supplied the pupils with a large variety of intrinsically interesting reading materials which would enrich their experiential background; and if teachers patiently trained pupils in the various methods for deriving meaning out of print, the hesitations and the retracings would decrease in number. Only if pupils are trained in this natural way will they become effective readers. Only then will their reading rate increase; only then will their eye movements become more regular and rhythmic.

STANDARDIZED READING TESTS

When standardized reading tests are given, the raw scores are usually translated into grade levels, percentiles, or reading ages. Unfortunately, too many teachers find no further use for the standardized reading tests than to employ these statistical measures for purposes of pupil segregation. Before actual class instruction is undertaken by teachers of reading, they should make a careful inventory of their pupils' strong and weak points as revealed by the standardized reading test. No reading test adequately measures the totality of reading achievement. The most reliable standardized reading tests do not pretend to measure more than three or four aspects of reading ability. For the very reason that standardized reading tests measure only a limited number of reading skills, teachers of reading are obligated to study carefully each pupil's entire test and to analyze his performance in these skills. For teachers to be content merely with the final numerical expression of a pupil's reading status on the entire test or of his status in each of the subtests is hardly enough. Unless teachers make such a careful inventory as has been indicated, the standardized reading tests might just as well not be administered at all.

READING AND MENTAL ABILITY

From ten to twenty-five percent of the first term pupils in the various high schools are known to be seriously retarded. Some of these pupils, it is true, have a low reading status because of their inferior mental equipment. Such pupils profit from reading instruction to a considerable extent, even though they may never achieve the reading norms for their grade. The majority of retarded readers, however, are normal and even superior adolescents. This fact indicates how widespread is reading deficiency in the high school population. If reading distress were typical only of students with low mentality, the solution of the reading problem could very properly be assi... special agencies equipped ... mentally retarded pup... however, reading deficie... common to so many pupils ... are normal and above normal, th... problem ... wn into the lap... and ri... regular class... room ...

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It is obvious that if the reading skills of these normal and above normal students were sharpened—and there is no reason why this cannot be done successfully—these pupils would be able to perform their classroom work at a pace which truly conforms to their scholastic capacity. It is principally for this reason that intelligence tests should be given in addition to reading tests. In this connection, it should be pointed out that the intelligence tests which have been used in our schools in the past do not adequately measure mental ability. They are themselves, to a great extent, tests of reading achievement. Intelligence tests should be employed which contain a number of non-verbal, as well as verbal, items sufficient to measure mental ability.

TEXT-BOOKS

In the last three years, several reading text-books have appeared containing exercises devised to sharpen some of the more important reading skills. Though some of these "readers" possess a content and format which are refreshing, teachers should be cautioned against a supine acceptance of these work-type books as a solution to the problem of reading. Merits a-plenty some of these volumes have. A discussion of their failings is not within the province of this article. It should be pointed out, however, that these books must not be treated as books containing a curricular content. They are intended only to serve functional ends, and should be used only when teachers desire to make more muscular those specific skills in which individual students have revealed a definite weakness. In other words, they should be used in the classroom only when a need for them is actually indicated. The teacher's analysis of the standardized test papers of her pupils will also assist her in determining the extent to which these "readers" may profitably be used.

A considerable portion of these new "readers" is made up of educational aids, like questions to be answered by the pupils, and scoring charts of one kind or another. Teachers should not make indiscriminate use of these aids. Too frequently lessons in reading are bogged down under the weight of the elaborate questioning and scoring machinery.

BOOKS AND BOOK LISTS

The ultimate aim of a well conceived reading program is the promotion of interest in reading as a pleasurable and useful leisure experience, as well as the development of efficient reading habits. It is for this reason that reading materials from a variety of fields should receive more attention in any teacher's plan of action than work-type text-books. Good books in many extra-curricular fields should be made immediately available to pupils. The building of classroom as well as departmental libraries should be encouraged. In order that teachers may know what types of books should be placed on the shelves of the various school libraries, each school should make its own inventory of the extra-curricular interests of its retarded readers. Existing book lists based on studies made in other systems should be used with discretion. Many book lists are largely synthetic in nature.

For a list to be truly helpful, it should reflect the local situation. No titles should be placed on this list unless it has been definitely ascertained that they may be secured in the school libraries or the neighborhood branch. The titles which comprise a useful book list should not be grouped by literary types. It is much more effective to group them according to families of interest. Each group should contain titles from the various literary forms. These titles should be graded or listed in some order which denotes progression of interest or difficulty, or both. Reading ladders of this kind should also be prepared with an eye to extending the pupils' reading interests beyond the ones revealed in the inventory of their interests.

The concern of English teachers with and about literature must not blind them to the need for engaging in an activity as pedestrian as remedial reading. Nor should the fact that English teachers have embarked upon a program of formal training in reading relieve their colleagues in the sciences and social studies of responsibility for developing the reading skills necessary for success in these subjects. But that is another story.

WILL SCARLET.
Technical Director Remedial
Program Secondary Schools.

"FREE" READING FOR REMEDIAL READING PUPILS*

The process of training pupils in high school in the acquisition of skill in reading up to their age and maturity levels has come to be known as remedial reading. The primary purpose in this training activity is to develop individual reading ability so that the pupil will find it possible to function adequately in all reading situations called for by curricular demands and by his natural desires. The first objective, then, in all this training is to improve the reading skills of the pupil. For that reason, emphasis has been placed in this process upon classroom activity in

* A talk presented at a meeting of First Assistants in English on March 30, 1939.

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which the pupil finds himself engaged in reading short selections and in revealing through expression channels the degree of comprehension of what he has read. This intensive work has proved effective in materially raising the level of reading performance. The desired outcome of all this activity is that pupils will learn how to read books, whether the books be school text-books or general works, and that they will read them with interest and enjoyment as well as with understanding.

From the very beginning of this high school project in attempting to assist pupils to overcome a vital deficiency in their previous training, with greater maturity and more insistent social demands as aids in the process, the teacher of remedial reading has realized that books and other forms of extensive reading must be made significant to these pupils. Never losing sight of the primary object—to use every means to assist in the process of developing reading skills—he has seen the possibility of adding interest and a sense of growth, of developing power, through the use of books and materials supplementary to the drill exercises provided in such books as Broening, Law, Wilkinson, and Ziegler's *Reading for Skill*[1] and Hovious's *Following Printed Trails*.[2] Furthermore, it has seemed plausible to him that copious activity in the use of this developing skill would tend to yield greater skill; as an English teacher he is familiar with the fact that copious exercise in writing and in speech is one of the most effective means of developing the ability to write well and to speak fluently. He has been able to find corroboration for his assumption from several sources. The New York State Syllabus in English for Secondary Schools, Grades 7-12, 1935, says, page 18:

> "Wide voluntary reading directly increases reading rate and through building a rich background improves comprehension and satisfaction."

In Center and Persons' *Teaching High School Students to Read*[3] we find the following statement on page 97:

> "There is, as would be expected, a good correlation between excellent, individualized programs of reading and progress in reading skills."

and again, page 106:

> "There must be wide extensive free reading in order that skills may be developed."

So a program of free, general, voluntary, supplementary, leisure reading has been accepted as a necessary phase of remedial reading.

A possible source of danger to the handicapped pupil from this activity in free reading must, however, be made clear at this point. When definite physical or psychophysical defects exist, copious free reading may do distinct harm; no extensive individual reading program should be undertaken without the approval of oculist or psychiatrist or both when there is any question concerning the existence of such defects. It is even inadvisable for the teacher to use the ophthalmograph without professional assistance.

Having embarked upon this more gratifying part of his job, the teacher of remedial reading soon faces the problem of stimulating his pupils to read freely. He will learn that some of his pupils, now fourteen years of age and over, have never read a book from cover to cover for pleasure, that all "books" to them have been school books which they could not handle with any degree of satisfaction and which meant study and homework reading with classroom rehearsal, a sequence of events that led usually to failure both in performance and reward. There are, however, some general interests characterizing the adolescent that can be enlisted in the task. One list of such interests is given on page 28 of the *Syllabus in High School English for Non-academically-minded Students*, recently issued by the New York City Association of First Assistants. Another list is given on page 23 of the State Syllabus quoted above. Three general and abiding interests are interest in the common problems in human relationship, lively in girls; interest in the mysterious, the mechanical, the adventurous, lively in boys; and interest in the sensational, lively in both. These pupils need strong, dramatic stimuli to arouse them emotionally and imaginatively. Then again, interests are individual; only when the chief, absorbing, personal interest is determined has a sure foundation for the building of an individualized reading program been found, a program which will provide the necessary copious reading activity that will not only develop skill in reading but that will be immediately pleasurable and that will give promise of growth in taste in reading for leisure moments.

These interests in pupils should guide the teacher in his choice of reading materials. He must free himself from the restrictive academic standards, remnants of that genteel tradition which still lingers in the teaching of literature in our secondary schools long after it has been forsaken by our makers of literature. Our remedial reading pupils are largely non-academic-minded and we cannot lead them if we remain narrowly-academic-minded. We can have no patience with such pronouncements like the following from Center and Persons,[4] page 100:

> "There are some people who claim that boys and girls will outgrow cheap and vulgar taste in

[1] Noble and Noble, New York.
[2] D. C. Heath and Company, New York.
[3] D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1937.
[4] Op. cit.

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books, that they must pass through the Tarzan and sensational stage, but this kind of thinking is not applied to other phases of one's training. It seems, therefore, pernicious doctrine."

The authors seem to forget that the primary object here is training in a skill, so all that is acceptable as meeting a normal, conversational standard of expression without being morally subversive should be regarded as meat for the chopper, no matter how strong. Why not Burroughs, Zane Grey, the Rover Boys and other boy and girl series? We must get them to read, to read copiously. Refinement in reading will come with maturity and experience, with the impact of social approval and solidarity, with growth in skill that will make reading a pleasurable activity because it can be successfully exercised.

We must above all avoid scholastic standards in the choice and handling of books. The State Syllabus warns us, page 15:

"Since the pupil's normal reading activities should bring pleasure and conduce to a permanent reading habit it is hazardous to employ the novels, plays and poems being read for these purposes, also for special training in reading skills.

Through such a plan so ingrained a distaste for literary materials may be developed as permanently to influence his reading habits."

There lies the real danger. It becomes definitely destructive if we insist that the pupil must consume as well all the abracadabra of literary forms and literary types.

We must, therefore, turn our attention to material that these pupils will read with some degree of voluntary acquiescence. Book lists are usually prepared for pupils with normal reading habits: from among them we can choose those works that meet the interests indicated above and that carry the reader along through the sheer force of sensationally vivid incident and personality, sensationally vivid to the pupil, not to ourselves. We can then gather a great variety of material. It will include the book of lowly literary pretensions, written for the very minds with which we are here working. It will include the "best-seller," such as *Gone With the Wind*, and other books in the public eye, including those about which current and popular movies and plays have been built, such as *Magnificent Obsession* and *Of Mice and Men*. It will include magazine articles of not too sustained a nature; *Life* is popular; we are trying an experiment with *Youth Today*. It may grow out of contact with a collection of short selections such as Persing and Leary's *New Horizons*,[5] which can be begun as extended silent reading in class and will lead to search for books by the same authors, or along the line of an interest aroused. A selection by Charles Lindbergh may motivate the reading of *We, Listen, the Wind!* and *North to the Orient;* the adventure interest is latent and can be aroused. It will include the daily and the school newspapers, portions of them that may not be the most significant to us but that they will read, especially the sports and the fashions sections. Joe Williams in the *New York World-Telegram* is popular reading.

All these sources indicate the variety of material available and the probable variety in the potential interests and tastes of pupils in remedial reading groups. It is natural that there be a wide range; materials that are made available to meet this spread will also serve the exploratory purpose of providing the means for catching the individual interest and then of feeding it as reading demand grows.

All this is positive and constructive. We must, however, be fully alive to the unfavorable reactions of these pupils to books. They will resent the book printed in large type and decorated with childish illustrations. Books on the elementary school reading list, printed for sixth, seventh and eighth year consumption, must be sedulously avoided. Our pupils have seen them before; they may have been required to read them; they will shun the very shelves upon which they find them and will look with sorrowful indulgence at the teacher who speaks glowingly about them. They want adult books, books that grown-ups in their social environment will also enjoy reading.

With a firm belief in the efficacy of his plan of copious reading and with the materials ready at hand, the capable teacher will follow procedures that have proved their worth. He will keep his classroom library handy and attractive; open shelves and book jackets will assist him in doing so. The magazine rack will be kept up-to-date with contributions from the class. He will use school and public library for exploration as a regularly scheduled practice, for he will find the class library inadequate for the purpose. The trip to the public library will lead his pupils to the section for adults, not to the section for juveniles. He will enlist them as borrowers, proud to show their cards indicating membership in a community institution. He will set aside a few minutes each daily period for informal reports of individual experiences in leisure reading, reports by pupils which will tell what books are being read, where they are being obtained, with what reactions they are being read, so as to arouse and stimulate their colleagues. He will also set aside a period a week for a general reading progress survey with books and other materials brought to class. Part of this period he may devote to personal consultations while the class reads silently; part will surely be devoted to reports of individual experience. He will plan for an

[5] Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York.

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occasional Civics Day, or Science Day, or Economic Geography Day, with books and reading problems brought to class. He will encourage the building of scrapbooks, leading to pupil reading of material both in the search for it and in the handling of it. He will also encourage his pupils to develop their ability in the telling skills so that they may fulfill the urge to share experiences through effective expression. He will motivate the wide reading of stories, for girls especially, by arousing an interest in their need for story-telling in common human relationship with the younger brother and sister. His written record of pupil progress will consist of a huge chart, prominently displayed in the classroom, showing individual interest and quantitative achievement; here a beginning of guidance in taste can be made through colorful presentation of the relatively more desirable reading material. He may even use the "extra-credit" device as a stimulant; he will find that it works and is justifiable, especially when combined with the reading chart. Using common sense, he will modify his demands in the matter of the extent of comprehension for he knows that understanding of the printed page will increase with maturity and with further development of skill in reading through intensive reading drill.

To train the teacher of remedial reading in the vision to see that all these procedures lead to specific pupil growth in response to diagnostically determined needs and in the ability to carry them on is the job of the progressive supervisor. The teacher must be led to learn the interests and social background of the academically limited and he must be guided into a sympathetic attitude towards these young people. Wise supervision will teach him that his problem is primarily with the adolescent in the high school, not with the subject he has been licensed to teach. He must perforce learn how to teach what is fundamentally an elementary school subject with the further complication that he must teach it to adolescents having adolescent interests and preoccupations and handicapped in other subjects because of this deficiency in reading. Professor Frances T. Spaulding in *High School and Life*,[6] a volume in the Report of the Regents' Inquiry, says, page 266:

> "Merely because a boy or girl has been promoted from the elementary school, the high school cannot safely assume that he has adequately mastered the skills which he ought to possess in oral expression and in the three R's. Association with older pupils is often better for an average elementary school pupil than is continued work in the elementary school environment; so that elementary schools may sometimes be justified in promoting to the high school pupils who have not mastered the tool skills. Again pupils who enter the high school with a minimum command of these skills may slip back unless they are given continued teaching which will make that command permanent. For both these reasons the high school needs to be continually alert to provide such elementary instruction as may be appropriate for certain of its pupils. It may do so in part through special coaching or remedial teaching; but every high school teacher ought to recognize his responsibility for teaching the special learning habits or skills that his particular subject may require."

[6] McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1938.

He must be made to realize that he cannot stimulate free reading among his pupils until he knows these books, magazines and newspapers and is sympathetic with the purpose they serve if not with the material itself. He must assume the virtue of interest in them and enthusiasm in handling them even if he have it not. He must be directed towards the professional literature on the subject. Books and syllabi previously mentioned must be available for his perusal. He will find particular help in *Center and Persons*, but, in the matter of free reading, he will find their Chapter VII on "The Leisure Reading of Retarded Readers" rather confusing since what is said shifts constantly from a consideration of the leisure reading habits and needs of retarded readers to those of all high school pupils, and back again. He can make good use of the excellent bibliography on page 22 of the *Syllabus in High School English for Non-academically-minded Students* in which, unfortunately, the *Center and Persons'* book does not appear. Above all, he can be encouraged to a realization of the undoubted need for what he is doing and the missionary nature of his task when he reads what Professor Spaulding has to say about the problem as it exists at present in New York State:

> "Nor do they (the high schools) teach pupils who are deficient in reading ability how to read. Instruction in the mechanics of reading finds a place in the high school program only as some individual teacher or supervisor, aware of the seriousness of the problem, seeks to deal with it independently."

The progresive supervisor will impress upon the teacher the fact that he is not working "independently," but that, in the high schools of the City of New York, he is engaged in a laudable, concerted effort to provide his pupils with a fundamental skill needed in all learning and in civilized living.

FRANK A. SMERLING,
James Monroe High School.

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REMEDIAL READING*

As I considered this problem of remedial reading, two questions from *The Mikado* went round and round in my mind:

"Is it weakness of intellect,
birdie?" I cried.
"Or a rather tough worm in your
little inside?"

As far as the majority of pupils in the remedial reading classes[1] are concerned, I think it's weakness of intellect. The rather tough worm is merely a symptom. We have to deal with a *whole child* who needs to be adjusted and not with one disability that needs to be removed.

Therefore to spend all or a great deal of time on remedial reading *as such* is, I feel, a mistake. To use a purely technical or mechanical approach is to go even further in the wrong direction. Eye machines may have their uses. I think it would be a very fine thing to use them with the more intelligent pupils who have bad reading habits. I wish eye machines had been used when I went to school. I have bad reading habits. But the pupils I'm talking about in remedial reading classes haven't bad reading habits. They have no reading habits.

Even so good a text as *Let's Read* used exclusively or too frequently may not be desirable. It may make these pupils feel they don't belong, and if there's anything these pupils want it's just that—they want to belong. Such remedial texts aren't real reading to them. They don't always want to be reading paragraphs in order to answer questions. That's not why we read. It isn't natural, and it isn't practical.

For, the problem, as I see it, is neither a statistical nor a mechanical one. It is a human problem. Technical and mechanical approaches should be used sparingly. Sympathetic, interested guidance is of primary importance. The human approach is essential. The teacher has to be interested not only in his pupils' reading problems but in all his problems. By getting the confidence and interested coöperation of the pupil, much can be accomplished. For these pupils are eager to get along, eager to belong. As one teacher who has two such classes put it, "They expect to be abused; they respond gratefully to kind treatment and understanding." I believe, too, that whatever success the W.P.A. Remedial Reading teachers have had *is* due not so much to techniques as to the small groups they work with. They have the opportunity of drawing out pupils on many more problems than remedial reading.

I feel about this problem of reading as I do about the problem of writing. Some teachers regard run-on or comma sentences as personal affronts and the grossest kind of illiteracy. Give me the pupil who writes comma sentences, but who on each side of the comma has a well constructed thought that means something. I'd rather have him than the pupil who writes no comma sentences, but who cannot put one word after another and create a thought and who cannot put one sentence after another and develop an idea.

I think that you will agree with me that for pupils with such writing disabilities a solid year of grammar work or sentence drill or punctuation exercises will merely film the ulcerous surface. You can no more teach writing to this type of pupil with mechanical and technical approaches than you can teach reading to his analogue (often the same pupil) with mechanical and technical approaches. It's not a rather tough worm in his little inside that we are dealing with. It's the whole pupil—his whole social and mental make-up.

Yet these pupils can become useful citizens—not on a diet of *Ivanhoe* and *A Midsummer Night's Dream*, however, nor on a diet of eye machines and mimeographed sheets. We must, through the agency of sympathetic teachers handling small classes, give these pupils the kind of education they can profit from and use.

Not only is this not exclusively a problem that has to do with a rather tough worm, but it is also not exclusively a first year problem. It is a four year problem. It is a permanent problem. We all recognize that we now have in our schools a group of non-academic, slow-progress pupils who really do not belong in high school. Nevertheless, we must take care of them. We must provide a four year course for these pupils. I feel, for them, we must institute 100% promotion based on effort and willingness, not on any standards we set up in advance. This is a situation we have to face realistically. The elementary schools promote 100% of their pupils. We inherit them. They're with us to stay. There's no reason why they should stay with us more than four years. If the High School Division will devise a non-Regents, non-academic diploma for such pupils, they will help us solve the problem.

When we have provided for these pupils in all these ways, then I think we shall be fulfilling what may very well be a worth-while educational slogan: to each according to his needs, from each according to his ability.

MAXWELL NURNBERG.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

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* (A talk presented at a meeting of First Assistants in English on Mar. 30, 1939.)

[1] Remedial Reading Classes are formed in the first term of high school and made up of pupils who, according to standardized reading tests, are *more* than one year below the high school reading level.

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THE SUPER-HONOR SCHOOL NEXT STEP IN THE EDUCATION OF THE SUPERIOR STUDENT IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK*

WITH A SURVEY OF PRESENT PRACTICES

The education of pupils of superior intelligence has entered its first phase in the City of New York and, perhaps, in other cities of the United States, through the development of so-called Honor Schools and of differentiated curricula arranged on an ability basis. The "honor" schools are of various types as I shall describe presently. But, regardless of minor differences, they all attempt to segregate pupils of superior ability into subject classes so that the course of study can be covered more thoroughly and, in many cases, so that the course of study can be amplified by challenging work that will stimulate the mental growth of these pupils in consonance with their greater mental ability, that will foster their powers of intelligent self-direction, and that will implant ideals and attitudes necessary for competent leadership in a democracy. In most cases the honor school is an aggregate of the superior classes that have resulted from the process of segregation and differentiation, but the very fact of naming this aggregate of classes an "honor school" and of assigning a director to supervise it tends to make the aggregate take on definite character. There is no doubt that there will emerge from these honor schools varied organizations which will tend to improve the development of the superior pupils who cannot profit sufficiently through pursuit of the ordinary work provided in our high schools.

PRESENT PRACTICES

It would seem that the honor school movement in New York is so young that to determine the nature of its final development would be impossible at this time. Let me give you a brief description of the honor schools within schools, specialized separate schools, and other special provisions made for the education of the superior students in the high schools of New York City.

*(Paper read by Dr. Hymen Alpern, Principal of Evander Childs High School, New York City, at the Annual Meeting of the National Committee on Coordination in Secondary Education, at Cleveland, on February 27, 1939.)

HONOR CLASSES

Special classes for pupils of superior attainment in particular subjects are found in every one of our fifty cosmopolitan high schools, including even the smallest. In just one of our high schools there are offered as many as fifty "special" classes and forty-two "honors" classes for the superior and those interested and gifted in a particular field of work. A pupil who shows particular aptitude in one subject is placed in a special course or in an Honor Class in that subject, and follows an enriched course in the direction of his inclination, while attending regular classes in other subjects. Special courses for the bright and the specially gifted pupil are offered by capable teachers in almost every department. The English and Speech Departments allow the superior student to express himself fully in courses in Journalism, Literature, Creative Writing, Public Speaking and Choral Speech. Enriched courses in the sciences, mathematics, foreign languages, history, economics, secretarial studies and health education invite the talented pupil to display his potential abilities and challenge him to such an extent that he is stimulated to greater activity. The work done by the pupils in the Painting, Graphic Arts, Interior Decorating, and Costume Designing courses augurs well for their artistic futures. For those interested and gifted in music, that department offers courses in composition, harmony, and choral work, in addition to group and individual instrumental instruction.

SEPARATE SPECIALIZED SCHOOLS

New York City has a number of special high schools whose function is to provide unified curricula for students whose special interests and capacities merit the opportunity for advanced specialized training. We have a High School of Music and Arts, a High School of Science, two Technical High Schools, a Textile High School, several Commercial High Schools and twenty-five Vocational High Schools.

SCHOOLS WITHIN SCHOOLS COMMONLY KNOWN AS HONOR SCHOOLS

In accordance with orders issued by Associate Superintendent Frederic Ernst, all of the fifty cosmopolitan or academic high schools of New York City will have honor schools functioning by September of this year. During the past few years two types of honor schools have developed in New York. One type of honor school is based on the multiple factor theory of intelligence expounded by Thorndike, which recognizes a number of intelligences rather than one intelligence. The other type of honor school functioning in New York City is based on the unifactor theory of intelligence, sponsored by

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Ebbinghaus and others, that intelligence is general, that it is a simple function. According to this theory, an individual who is bright in one subject is bright in all others, or vice versa. Typical of the first type is the Evander Childs High School Honor School. The Evander School is a planned, coordinated, and unified organization, operating under a faculty carefully chosen from among the best teachers in each department. Their efforts to devise and conduct appropriate activities are coördinated by a director who endeavors to pool their experiences with the various classes. Pupils are selected for special instruction on the basis of achievement in the particular subject. The Honor School is accordingly composed of the successful students from the third term through the eighth term. All boys and girls who have made, first, a rating of 85% or more in any subject for the two preceding terms, and (2), a general average of 75% in all prepared subjects for the preceding term, are qualified for admission. A student may be in the Honor School in some subjects and outside of the Honor School in other subjects. Typical of the second group of honor schools is the Morris High School Honor School. Here students are in the Honor School in all subjects if their general average is superior. Thus we may find in the Morris Honor School a student who is linguistically inferior attending enriched courses in languages with students of superior linguistic talents.

SUGGESTED SCHOOL FOR THE MOST GIFTED OR THE SUPER-HONOR HIGH SCHOOL

From a first hand familiarity with the honor schools operating for the benefit of superior students in the high schools of New York City, I must admit that the geniuses and the near-geniuses of our pupils, those who, according to Terman have an I. Q. of 140 or over, are not dealt with separately, and probably not suitably. These pupils are mixed with the other pupils in the honor school, although there is sufficient evidence to prove that they are separated from them mentally by a greater gap than exists between the honor pupils and the average pupils. In Public School 500, Professor Hollingworth has isolated a group on the elementary school level, which should serve as a model for high school organization. Here a group of the most gifted pupils are segregated for special instruction. Such an arrangement in the secondary schools would be, in my opinion, very desirable, and it is the purpose of this section of my paper to recommend the establishment of a separate "Super-Honor High School" for the most gifted pupils in the City of New York. What I am recommending for New York may be applicable to other municipalities. In order that this may be accomplished, a number of obstacles would have to be removed. To begin with, the number of pupils available for this school, even if the whole city were combed to find them, would not be very large. According to the best authorities, including Professors Terman and Hollingworth, approximately one half of one percent of children have intelligence quotients of 140 or higher. On this basis for the City of New York with a high school population of 250,000 the register of the proposed school when fully organized would be 1,250. These pupils might come from any of the widely scattered areas of Greater New York but in order that this school could function they would have to live near enough to the building to enable them to travel to it without undue hardship. In such cases, transportation could be arranged for them in precisely the same way as it is for crippled or blind children in New York City. In other cases, it might be necessary for the parents to move near the vicinity of the school in order to solve the problem of transportation.

Financial Subsidy

In some cases, financial subsidy would be necessary in order that pupils of super-superior ability in under-privileged homes might be able to attend the school. I should like to recommend that the basic principle of scholarships applied to pupils graduating from high school and intending to go to college be applied also to the most superior pupils graduating from elementary school to enable them to go to a super-honor high school. I should like to recommend that, in cases of pupils of superior ability, they be given financial assistance in accordance with their needs up to a maximum sum to be determined upon through future study but surely sufficient to enable them to attend this school in reasonable comfort. It seems to me that conservation of these most superior pupils can result in one of the greatest benefits to a democratic society. The contribution of funds to insure their proper development is an expenditure from which we can be certain to secure many times the profit that ordinarily accrues from educational investment. You doubtless know that beginnings in the direction of financial subsidies have already been made in both France and England. In this particular respect the United States is backward, as compared with these two democratic countries. We are, of course, considerably in advance of either of them in the amount of free education we offer. I might also recommend a federal subsidy for the education of very superior students in localities and states where there is general poverty and where general standards are low. We must salvage superior ability wherever it may be found for intelligent and devoted leaders are needed everywhere in a free country.

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School Within a School

I should like to recommend further that, at least for the present, such a super-honor school be established within the confines of one already functioning high school in the entire city. There is considerable advantage in having these very superior pupils associate with fellow pupils of their own age and social achievement level. This can be done in such subjects as health education, music, art, the extra curriculum, and other classes where work is socialized or individualized. Such an organization of a super-honor school would contribute to the proper adjustment of the pupils in the normal social life of our democratic society. Accordingly, room should be made in an existing high school so that suitable classes for these pupils could be organized. It will cost somewhat more to operate a super-honor school than the ordinary high school. Classes, of necessity, would be much smaller and more space would have to be provided for work outside of classroom instruction. The cost, however, would probably be less than that resulting from the construction and operation of many of our specialized schools, such as the science high schools, music and arts high school, and the vocational and trade high schools. Perhaps this lesser expense, which I am recommending that we assume is a more justifiable one than the greater one which the city is already expending, and properly expending for existing specialized high schools.

Curriculum Considerations

It is incumbent upon any one recommending the creation of a super-honor school to state in terms, however vague, what would be the nature of the instruction that should be undertaken there. At this stage of my study, I am prepared to recommend only the broad outline of what I think should constitute the course of study at the outset of such a project. What changes would result from actual experience with such a school it would be rash to predict. In order that the pupils of a super-honor school articulate satisfactorily with the various colleges in which they would enter, they should cover the conventional program of work, in addition to an amplified and possibly fused program of work, superimposed upon the prescribed courses of study. This recommendation is made for the very practical reason, among others, that nearly all of our colleges are geared to the conventional secondary school course of study, and that a marked deviation from this might defeat the recommendation contained herein. Experience with superior pupils of this type in the elementary schools, as stated by Professor Hollingworth, has indicated that those pupils who are in, or nearly in the genius class, are able to cover and absorb the conventional program of work with great speed and facility. There is no reason, at least at the outset, why they should not, therefore, cover the same ground as other pupils. There will be, however, sufficient time for them to cover large projects on a fused basis such as have been undertaken with success by many of our best progressive schools. Such projects cut across the subject matter lines and put to use the knowledge and skills achieved in the regular school program of studies. These projects and activities present teaching situations on a functional plane which are in themselves pedagogical procedures worthy of the foundation of a special school. But in the super-honor school the purpose is to enable the pupils to develop their interests and capacities to the highest possible degree through challenging mental work with the sort of activities which will engage their attention when they join the adult life of the community, and pursue their own endeavors under their own initiative as scholars and leaders. There are projects which deal with social and economic life, others that deal with science, and many that deal with experiences of the most varied types that can be given to these pupils so that, in addition to the normal high school work, exploration of their talents can be made to an extent hitherto not undertaken on the high school level. The proposed super-honor school is to be prepared to recognize and develop a great variety of talents. In contrast with the European systems that aim primarily to produce great men of letters, we must aim to produce a variety of great men—in letters, art, science, and so forth.

Moreover, it would be seen that no attempt for these pupils to finish high school work at an early age is contemplated. On the contrary, an effort will be made to retain them for the full four-year period, but during that entire time to maintain their level of work on such a plane and such a pressure as to insure intriguing mental activity and growth for pupils of super-capacity. A detailed statement of the curriculum does not belong in this paper. It is enough to recommend the establishment of such a super-honor school and to state a few of its more pressing poblems.

The Teaching Staff

The selection of the personnel of a teaching staff for a super-honor school would necessitate combing our system for our most skillful and best informed teachers. Whether or not a special grade of teacher, or a bonus to be paid to them, would be necessary for effective organization is a matter requiring further study. As a preliminary opinion, it would seem

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to me desirable to offer some financial emoluments as an inducement to securing applications from our superior teachers. Whatever means we use to secure first rate teachers for first rate students the aim should be to select teachers who are imbued with respect for the integrity of the human intellect, who love the adventure of searching for truth, who are intellectually honest, and who respect the intelligence and personalities of their gifted student—society's potential leaders and democracy's greatest asset.

CONCLUSION

The survey of the honor high schools of New York City, and the situation that obtains throughout the nation is extremely encouraging. All over America, educators are alive to the necessity of educating superior pupils, and in numerous localities are doing something about it. We can expect from this activity the development of great educational institutions devoted to the training of our great leaders, our great philosophers, our great artists, and our great scientists. We can expect from this movement a greater America. I am recommending one more step beyond that which has already been taken: the creation of a super-honor high school to develop our geniuses and our near-geniuses through every force and resource at our command. This last recommendation together with Prof. Hollingworth's advocacy of a super-elementary school and Prof. Terman's recommendation of a super university, if carried out, I believe, will be a crowning monument to democratic education in the freest democracy on earth.

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THE FUNCTION OF DRILLS IN THE TEACHING OF SPEECH

To a detached observer, if such there be, the swing of the pendulum of educational theory would be of considerable interest. Theory has shifted, under the influence of changing psychologies and increasing sophistication in the theorists, from detached consideration of individual subjects, each having a set of specific objectives, specific techniques, specific materials, and exclusive interest, to general considerations of social values, integration and guidance. Procedures have shifted, correspondingly, from means to the accumulation of specific subject-matter data to means for the inculcation of general attitudes. A further and equally significant shift has been that from the concept of education as a means of inoculating the student with the experience of the race as a prophylactic against error, to education as an enrichment of the student's own experience.

To the classroom teacher, such an alteration in the concept of education has far more than academic interest, for classroom teaching is the reverse of the medal of theorizing. The burden of transmuting into practice the easy theorizing of the expert rests on the classroom teacher. This requires not merely an alteration in the teacher's own outlook on his subject and in his means of presentation of the subject; it also demands that the school, through the classroom teachers, teach the new concept of education to the students. This is, perhaps, the most difficult task facing the teacher today, and it can be accomplished only by concerted action on the part of all teachers in putting the concept into practise.

Taking the line of least resistance, the teacher of Speech can maintain that there are two types of subject in the curriculum of the high school; there are skill subjects and enrichment subjects. Speech is a skill subject. Here students are given the opportunity to develop a technique which will enable them to make the most of the opportunities for enriched experience offered in the other subjects. Thus the teaching of Speech becomes purely a routine matter, and there is no need for any flurry of modernization. Correct voice production, accurate and crisp articulation, and correct pronunciation remain the objectives of Speech training.

For the teacher of Speech, or of any other subject, to take this line means the collapse of the entire program; means that, in education, there will continue to be a divorce of theory and practise. No one subject can stand outside an integrated curriculum, for the students must be able to see the results of integration before they can believe in it. We dare not suggest, says Rahskopf, that "overt speech behavior is more fundamental than the social and psychological forces which motivate and condition it."[1] To do so would be to drift rather than to shift.

Nor can we dodge the issue by talking of the importance of speech training as a preparation for life. Education is not a preparation for life; it *is* life. The child is the father of the man, it is true; but the child has life of his own, life in actuality as a child, not merely life in potentiality as a man. Education must not prepare for life; it must give life. If the concept of education as enrichment of the students' experience has meaning in the speech field, it must mean that "subject matter serves merely as the vehicle for carefully planned

[1] Horace G. Rahskopf, "Principles of the Speech Curriculum," in *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol. XXIII, No. 3 (October, 1937), p. 452.

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activities designed to give the children experience in those life situations in which speech is the controlling factor."[2]

A re-evaluation of present practises is, therefore, needed. If, in this re-evaluation, some of our most cherished prejudices should fall, we should not regret it; we should discover new means of achieving our objectives to replace the old, which do not, and hope that the discovery of the new will serve as a stimulus to better teaching. "The time has come for us to refuse to coddle and excuse our erstwhile infant for his faults and demand practical results."[3]

Among the prevalent practices which need consideration is the prevalent practise of drill, proceeding from the belief that speech is a conditioned reflex or pattern of such reflexes, and can therefore be developed to beauty by repetition of correct forms. At a recent departmental conference, where the subject of "Drills" was discussed, significantly, the first guiding question proposed by the committee in charge was not "Are drills necessary"? but "Why are drills necessary?" The basic assumption was made; rationalization was sought; the question was, therefore, eluded, not faced.

The major issue of the conference became the motivation of drill, rather than its right to existence in the program of a modern school. This was inevitable, for when, without examination of the basic question, a group of teachers accepts drill, it is evident that drill has become a fetish, a way of demonstration to ourselves rather than to our students a concrete result of our training. Drill has become a necessity for the teacher rather than a need of the students. We must, therefore, seek artificial means of presenting the drill to the students, or motivating the drill, or, at best so disguising the drill that, to the student, it is a game, accepted as such, and palatable as such, rather than a drill. The interchange at the conference was, therefore, not of ideas, but of devices (horrible word).

The question of the necessity of drill in a speech program depends on our definition of what we are teaching. If we are teaching a formalized course in which our objectives are a "cultured" voice, "correct" pronunciation of words, exact placement of the articulators in the production of consonants, standardized speech, then drill has a place; these are muscular habits, which, like such other muscular habits as ice-skating, riding a horse, or playing billiards, can be improved by practice. The weeks of practice through which a football team is put so that proper functioning on each play is a conditioned reflex on the part of each member of the team is drill. If our objectives are those which are achievable by drill, we might take a leaf from these sports, and get more satisfactory results by introducing the competitive element, by having speech teams, in competition with each other, so that the drill bears fruit in successful competition.

It seems to me, however, that this definition denudes Speech of all positive virtues and reduces it to the level of a purely remedial course. The negative character of drill is suggested in the statement of John J. Loftus, that "In any modification of the Activity Program used it will be necessary to make class and individual diagnosis and to set up suitable remedial drill techniques reinforced by a good class environment and alert watchfulness."[4] That this negative aspect of our work does exist, and is necessary, there is no doubt; the overcrowding in our speech clinics bears ample testimony to that.

But let us remember that "Drill on techniques does not in itself constitute adequate speech education any more than the chattering of sounds constitutes socially adequate speech."[5] Let us recognize that drill serves only the negative purpose of clinical work, and that we must not permit the range and fullness of the concept of speech as "a basic social process without which our institutions could not function effectively nor our culture be developed and perpetuated"[6] to be obscured by any routine.

I have described modern education as emphasizing social values, integration, and guidance. In the concept of speech which I have just quoted, and in Knower's statement, after Gardiner, that, "The province of speech then becomes the study of those dynamic patterns in social situations in which a personality uses symbolic processes with convention value to stimulate an immediate social environment,"[7] we can see the attempt to define speech in terms of its social values. Similar is Gardiner's statement that "speech, with its deliberate and calculated pointing at things, is emphatically not explained by self-expression. It is, on the other hand, easily accounted for by recognizing that mankind is gregarious and dependent upon cooperation. . . . The necessity of the sociological attitude to speech seems herewith to be finally vindicated."[8] Speech skills are valueless outside a social setting, and the development of these skills is com-

[2] Letitia Raubicheck, *Teaching Speech in Secondary Schools*. New York, 1935. p. 22.

[3] Robert Frankel, "Charting a Road through the Speech Wilderness", in *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol. XXIII, No. 3, (October, 1937). p. 478.

[4] John J. Loftus, "A Dynamic Speech Program. The Place of Speech in Project Curricula," in *The Spoken Word*, Vol. III, No. 2, (June, 1935). p. 6.

[5] Rahskopf, *op. cit.*, p. 453.

[6] Rahskopf's address at Buffalo conference of the National Council of Teachers of English, as reported in *The New York Sun*, November 27, 1937.

[7] Franklin H. Knower, "Some Present Problems and Next Steps in Graduate Work in Speech," in *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol. XXIII, No. 3, (October, 1937). p. 460.

[8] Alan H. Gardiner, *The Theory of Speech and Language*. Oxford, 1932. pp. 20-22.

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mensurate with the individual student's adjustment to his social milieu. The basis upon which a speech course is founded must therefore be a concern with the process of adjustment. We need not stimulate the student of normal development to the correct pronunciation of any one sound or group of sounds. This learning will come about incidentally as we stimulate the student to develop an attitude of coöperation with the group, a sense of his responsibility as a citizen, and an understanding of the common factors in the personal, emotional, and esthetic experiences of the individuals in the group. These elements represent the social and psychological bases of speech behavior. They give speech a meaning beyond "the chattering of sounds."

"Speech provides by its very nature a functional and integrating area in education."[9] The integration of Speech into a program of modern education, of course, depends to a great degree on the amount of formality we can dispense with. Loftus suggests that "perhaps the best instrument in the Activity Program is Dramatization," and that "the conference periods, ... likewise provide opportunities for acquiring good speech."[10] These suggestions offer a mere hint of the possibilities for integration involved in an activity as fundamental to living in groups as is Speech. Rahskopf summarizes thus:

"An adequate speech curriculum should be so arranged that (1) its mental hygiene aspects of instruction will be carried on in closest coöperation with guidance directors, social worker, and parents; (2) the body training will be shared by teachers of physical education; (3) the vocal and phonetic improvement aided by music and language teachers; (4) enrichment of vocabulary and command of oral style promoted, as at present, by English teachers; (5) corrective work participated in by psychiatrists and doctors, social workers, and special teachers for the hard-of-hearing; (6) social influence through speech encouraged and guided by teachers of social science and English and by auditorium and club advisers; and (7) esthetic enrichment broadened by teachers of art, music, manual arts, and literature."[11]

Guidance through speech involves the school in the responsibility for a threefold speech program. It demands the maintenance of an adequate clinical program for the student of backward speech personality as well as for the student with actual speech defects; it demands the recognition of the need for establishing special opportunities for the Speech-gifted student; and it calls for the presentation of Speech to the normal student as a vital factor in his growth within society. These requirements in turn demand the development of fuller diagnostic materials than we have thus far at hand.

Where, in such a program—and how can Speech be maintained in a modern school unless we adopt such a program?—do we need drill? We need drill in the clinics which care for the needs of students with speech defects. In these clinics, it is necessary for us to build, or re-build, a set of muscular responses; to train, or retrain, the ear of the students to acceptable patterns; to condition, or re-condition a pattern of reflexes. We must work with the psychiatrist, the physician, the dentist, the social worker; they can help in the problem of discovering, and, where possible, eliminating the causes of faulty speech. When this coöperation has borne fruit, our problem becomes one of re-education, so that gradually the speech-handicapped students can be equipped for the normal speech behavior of their group. To this end alone we may use drill, but with caution, remembering that "just as water taken from a stream is no longer a part of the stream, elements of the speech process taken from their realistic sphere of dynamic social activity are no longer speech."[12]

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[9] Knower, *op. cit.* p. 5.
[10] Loftus, *op. cit.* p. 5.
[11] Rahskopf, *Principles of the Speech Curriculum*, p. 456.
[12] Knower, *op. cit.*, p. 460.

READING BEFORE GRAMMAR

AN EXPERIMENT WITH A READING METHOD IN FRENCH

Since the publication of the findings of the Modern Foreign Language Study, 1928-30, reading has come to be recognized as the chief aim in modern foreign language instruction. The New York City syllabus in modern foreign languages clearly postulates as its chief aim "the development to the point of enjoyment the ability to read the foreign language." Despite the wide-spread recognition of this objective, however, reading has progressed rather slowly in our schools. To be specific, the University of Chicago High School conducted an experiment with a reading course in 1924-5 and reported that at the end of two years, the pupils had read at least 1200 pages of French. Have any of our schools even remotely approached that achievement?

It does not require much argument to maintain that a course which wishes to develop the ability to read a language should devote most of its time to reading. In our New York City schools, however, this is not possible. For

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while the New York City syllabus places chief emphasis on the development of reading ability and gives only secondary importance to the development of the abilities to understand spoken French, to speak and write the language, the Regents examination is based on the hope for attainment of the fourfold aim, and stresses the study of grammar in the first two years. The teachers of modern foreign languages in New York City thus have to follow two differing sets of aims.

The New York City syllabus avowedly favors the reading aim. It is compelled however to abide by Regents requirements. The city syllabus establishes a minimum requirement of 110 pages of intensive and 110 pages of extensive reading in the first two years of the study of a foreign language. But can anyone successfully maintain that the reading of 220 pages will develop to the point of enjoyment the ability to read a foreign language? It is the necessity of devoting the greater part of the first two years to the study of grammar that stands in the way of actually developing the ability to read the foreign language. We have yet to meet the substantiated claim that students who have completed the present two years' course in a modern foreign language have developed to the point of enjoyment the ability to read that language.

What can be done about this situation? The work of Michael West in stressing reading above grammar, the recommendations of Morrison in his *Practice in Teaching in the Secondary School*, the analogy with the study of English by our students, who are not introduced to grammar before they are sufficiently proficient in comprehension of words and phrases, and the growing belief, in the course of several years of classroom experience, that pupils could learn both reading and grammar more quickly and more proficiently if the study of grammar were deferred to the time when they have made the reading adaptation—all these prompted the writer to attempt the following experiment.

AIMS:

1. To develop the ability to read French through abundant reading.
2. To discover whether greater progress can be made in the study of French if the study of grammar is preceded by a period of abundant reading in French.
3. To discover whether a representative group of high school students under conditions prevailing in New York City can in two years attain the chief aim of the New York City syllabus and the Regents examination aim with its chief emphasis on grammar, by the method in two (2) above.

PROCEDURE:

1. TYPE OF STUDENTS:

The class in beginner's French in which this experiment was conducted (40 students) was not an especially selected group. There were among them 20 boys and 20 girls. Their ages ranged from 13 to 15 years. One third of them were studying French as their second language. The I. Q. (Otis) of the group averaged 103. In the ability to read English (Nelson Silent Reading Test) one half of the class was retarded from 2 to 5½ years. In short, a group of high school students, falling somewhat below the normal. These students were kept together as a class in French for two years.

2. SELECTION OF READING MATERIAL:

The greatest problem was to find sufficient, easy reading material and abundant plateau reading. For lack of adequate texts (the Heath series has now in part filled that lack), the teacher used a number of texts available in the department book room and adapted them to the special needs of the course.

Thus after spending the first three weeks in discussing France and the French language and in getting an oral introduction to reading through pronunciation, Gouin series, and conversation, and so forth, the class began to read *Colette et ses frères*. However, when page 25 was reached and new vocabulary was being introduced too rapidly, the class was given the reading selections in the first 8 lessons of Dondo *Complete French Course*. Then the first 20 pages of *Si Nous Lisions* were studied. Following that the class read the first three stories in *Contes Dramatiques*. Then the class read the first 20 pages in *Le Français Vivant*. The object in this constant flitting from book to book was to find a supply of adequate reading material of approximately the same level of difficulty, since any one book introduced new vocabulary at too rapid a pace for the purposes of the experiment.

3. DESCRIPTION OF CLASS-ROOM WORK:

In the initial stages, oral work received the greatest attention. There was abundant chorus work. The teacher always read orally the new work in the reader. Very simple questions on the reading material were asked in French; the answers (when in French) usually required merely repetition of the question or of the text. The students memorized and recited simple poems and sang French songs. Vocabulary drills and tests were frequent. Although French was not employed exclusively, it was used abundantly.

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After the first two months, most of the time was devoted to reading. Pupils read silently. Comprehension was tested by multiple choice and matching in French and completions and answers in English. Very often answers in French were written —of the type requiring mere repetition of the questions. Every grammatical phenomenon was treated as a vocabulary problem. Thus, while students knew the meaning of *elle a, nous avons, ils n'ont pas,* they did not know what it was to conjugate *avoir* in the present indicative. Some general explanations were usually given, especially when the curiosity of students was aroused by meeting certain forms in their reading—such as "s" being the sign of the plural of nouns and adjectives, "e" being the sign of the feminine of adjectives, *"ent"* the ending for *ils* in the present tense.

4. Scope of Work in Reading:

By the middle of the third term, the class had read 500 pages intensively and from 300 to 500 pages extensively.

5. Introduction to Grammar:

Towards the end of the third term the class began the systematic study of grammar. All the grammar text-books available in the department were found unsatisfactory for two reasons: (1) the vocabulary was too simple and restricted, (2) the pace was too slow. The teacher, therefore, constructed original grammar lessons, and distributed them to the class on mimeographed sheets. The method was inductive or deductive depending on the topic. Abundant and varied exercises were worked out. In the study of tenses it was found more desirable to have the students learn all the simple tenses and the past indefinite of the first conjugation verbs before they were given the same tenses of the other conjugations, which they then found very simple and which served them as a review. As a reference grammar and as an additional source of drill exercises, the class used Dondo's *Modern French Courses.*

The progress in grammar was highly satisfactory. The most gratifying feature was that the students were not hindered by vocabulary difficulties while studying grammar. At the beginning of the fourth semester, however, the teacher was obliged to revise his plans. It was his original intention to devote the last seven months of the course partly to the study of grammar and partly to continued reading. This plan was actually followed for about six weeks. Then the teacher began to fear that many of the weaker students would not master all the grammar necessary for the Regents' examination. In the fourth semester, therefore, the class and the teacher very reluctantly abandoned reading (except for translation purposes) and devoted all the time to grammar, dictation and oral comprehension exercises.

RESULT:

A. Measured by Objective Standards:

1. The class read the following books:

Spink and Millis:	*Colette et ses Frères*	100 pages
Hills and Dondo:	*Contes Dramatiques*	140 "
Cochran and Eddy:	*Si Nous Lisions*	140 "
Dondo:	*Modern French Course*	50 "
Greenberg:	*Le Français Vivant*	75 "
Greenberg:	*French Stories for Beginners*	50 "
Smith and Roberts:	*Language, Literature and Life*	40 "
Coleman:	*Heath Graded French Readings*	125 "
Chancel:	*Le Pari d'un Lycéen*	95 "
Vermont:	*La Belle France*	50-100 "
	Total	875-925 pages

Additional:

Voluntary supplementary reading ..... 1-200 pages

2. The class spent more time in the study of French civilization than other classes in the school.
3. The ability of the class in oral comprehension as judged by the Regents examination and by the teacher's subjective opinion was superior to that of other classes.
4. On the French Two Years Regents examination of June 1937, the following results were obtained:

Average rating of the group using the special reading method	73%	Average rating of all other students in the school	79%
Per cent of students in the reading group receiving a pass mark (65% or over)	79%	Per cent of all the other students in the school receiving a pass mark	89%

5. The scores on standarized tests were as follows:

(a) Silent reading test.

Average score by students in the reading group on the American Council Alpha French test in silent reading 14.8

Norm 15

(b) Vocabulary tests

Average score by the reading group on the Columbia Research Bureau test in Vocabulary 57.2

Norm 59

Average score on a school vocabulary test based on the Vander Beke word list:

by the reading group when they were studying French in the third term ..... 54 by a normal class in French 5 53

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B. Interpretation of Measurable Results:

The scores obtained in the reading test by the group taught by this special method were not higher than the norm for the test. The question may then be asked: "How is it that a group taught by a reading method and emphasizing reading achieved only normal results?" A mitigating explanation must be made. The reading tests were administered at the end of the two years' course. As we have pointed out, Regents' requirements made it necessary to devote the last seven months of the course almost exclusively to grammar. In these last seven months, consequently, very little reading was done.

It is regrettable that the reading tests were not given just before the study of grammar had been begun. At that time, when the reading ability of the class was at its peak, the results on the tests would undoubtedly have been better. Witness the superior results on the vocabulary tests based on the Vander Beke Word List given at that time. The class as a whole had an average on the vocabulary test that was higher than the average of a class that had been studying French one year longer than they.

What is highly significant is that once the class had developed the ability to read French, even a lapse of seven months did not cause them to lose that ability. While they did forget somewhat in the seven months, they still had average or normal reading ability.

The results obtained on the Regents' examination by this group were lower than those obtained by the school as a whole. A very significant point must be kept in mind in this connection. Throughout the two years of this experiment, no students in this group were failed. In other words, all these students had spent only four terms in the study of French before taking the Regents' examination. This is not the case with the other students of whom many had repeated one, two, three and even four terms of French by the time they finally passed the Regents' examination. The six students in the special reading group who failed the Regents' examination required only one additional term to remove their condition.

C. Results That Could Not be Measurable by Objective Tests:

1. Student opinion.

The students of the class unanimously (and anonymously) expressed their enjoyment of the course. They liked in particular, the abundance of reading material, the pleasurable feeling of actually understanding the books they read, the songs and the cultural material.

2. Teacher's opinion.

The teacher found that more French was learned by this group than by other groups. That is, the abundant reading—interesting and educative per se—made the subsequent study of grammar easier and more meaningful. The teacher found, however, that the need to abandon reading in the last part of the course in order to take up the systematic study of Grammar because of Regents' requirements was regrettable. The class was making superior progress with the method adopted. Complete absorption in the study of grammar was at this time actually detrimental to the students' progress in the study of the French language.

CONCLUSIONS

1. The results based on objective tests and on subjective teacher and student judgment indicate that greater progress in the study of French was made when the study of grammar was preceded by a period of abundant reading in French.
2. This experiment showed that for the group involved two years was not sufficient time to attain satisfactorily the two-fold aim: to develop the point of enjoyment the ability to read French and to attain a mastery of French grammar such as is required by the Two Years Regents' examination in French.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. The effectiveness of the "reading before grammar" method is so evident that the writer urgently recommends it to the attention of other language teachers for additional experimentation.
2. The method would be most effective if the grammar requirements on the Regents' examination were relaxed.
3. Under conditions prevailing in New York City schools, even with the Regents' requirements unchanged, this method would be excellent in a three year course. The first three terms would be devoted to abundant reading. During the next two terms systematic study of grammar would be taken up three days a week and reading continued twice a week. In the last term, in addition to reading and grammatical review, writing ability would be stressed.
4. It is superfluous to add that this method does not neglect the development of speaking ability and the study of foreign civilizations. In fact, in the experiment conducted these activities were carried on more successfully than in other classes.

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The writer wishes to express his sincere thanks to Mr. S. Rakowitz, Chairman of the French Department at Abraham Lincoln High School, whose constant encouragement and valuable aid, both administrative and pedagogical, made this experiment possible.

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GUIDANCE AND SPEECH*

Guidance in our schools is based on the fact that boys and girls, like all human beings, need help. They are not able, without assistance, to solve successfully the problems with which life confronts them. This, of course, is not peculiar to the age in which we live. From time immemorial, the young of all classes have looked to their elders to teach or guide them in the way they should go.

What is different today is the conditions under which we live, at home, in school, in church, at work and at play. To put it briefly, and tritely, life is more complex today than it was a comparatively few years ago; and it has become so in an amazingly short time. Twenty-five years ago, you and I —or perhaps your parents and I —were not confronted, when we were graduated from elementary school, with a bewildering assortment of high schools, of courses within those high schools, of subjects within those courses, not to mention many vocational fields and twenty thousand occupations within those fields. It does not require much proof to show that parents do not, and admittedly cannot, carry the burden of guidance on the basis of sufficient facts and experience of the educational and vocational world. And, it is to the schools, therefore, that they are looking for such guidance, with the result that guidance is fast becoming a major and integral function of the school system.

Now, one characteristic of guidance in schools today is that counselors whose advisory work is mainly focused upon the making of satisfactory educational or vocational plans (the two are in practice inseparable) find themselves faced by the potential necessity for considering all phases of pupils' lives and personalities. Seldom can the work of the school counselor take the direct course of matching the interests and aptitudes of a boy or girl to the demands of vocations. There are always some kinks to iron out before the perfect combination of boy and vocation is achieved.

And so the counselor is concerned not only with the selection of a future vocation by a student but with preparing for it, entering upon it, and progressing in it. She knows all too well from experience, as well as recent studies, that mere skill at the job, though it is a basic necessity, does not alone or even predominantly spell success in it. It is not only the trained eye, ear, or hand that is important. Entire personality including appearance, posture, gesture, and speech plays a very important role in producing vocational happiness. This is one of the reasons why vocational counselors must be interested in each student as an entirety, a whole person, not just those segments of him that do typewriting, or welding, or sewing, or painting, or writing, or bookkeeping. That is why, also, they pause in the process of direct attack upon the problem of vocational choice to suggest a change or an improvement in one respect or another in the makeup of boy and girl to make them more effective candidates for the world of work, as well as for all of life's experiences.

The importance of speech in the personal equipment of young people is well recognized by guidance workers. A student's speech may be an asset or it may be a very definite liability in his life. Particularly when he looks for a job after leaving school, does it play a big part in a wide range of occupations. Clapp and Kane, in *How to Talk*, list four classes of occupations according to the "communication responsibilities" which they involve. Two of them, they tell us, involve a great deal of talking; these include the vast army of men and women who "as salesman, professional workers, or representatives of service organizations, are meeting many others, and the men and women who are engaged in supervising the work of other people. The most important and influential workers in human society are in these classes. How they manage their interviews and negotiations seriously affects the dispatch of society's business."

Employers want students to be able to speak correctly, clearly, pleasingly. The bright high school girl with a harsh, rasping voice who aspires to the nursing profession is not well guided unless she develops a proper bedside manner, the clearest necessity in which, is a soothing, reassuring voice. The boy with fine voice qualities who decides on radio announcing, but is careless about his grammar, needs guidance which will direct his efforts to the attainment of habitually correct technical English. Counselors everywhere can multiply instances of failure to obtain employment because skill and presentable appearance were not accompanied by good speech. Poor speech seems to be associated in the minds of employers with slovenliness, lack of confidence,

*Radio Broadcast, Station WNYC, May 31, 1938, on program of Association of High School Teachers of Speech.

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and timidity. Few employers consider these qualities assets to their business.

It is the aim of guidance, therefore, to be aware not only of speech defects such as lisping, stammering and stuttering, but of colorless, ineffective speech, that comes from shallow breathing, or lack of muscle tone and vigor, or of careless vulgar speech due to lazy habits or wrong associates, reading matter as well as friends. Counselors are in a strategic position to work with specialists in speech in behalf of boys and girls whose speech "gets by" temporarily, but who are failing to achieve their maximum speech development. None, I daresay, is in a better position than the vocational counselor to realize the bearing of speech disorders upon personality, socialization, and economic success. It is our experience, that advice on these points, coming from a counselor dissociated from the classroom teaching and marking process gives powerful reinforcement to the efforts of teachers of speech. It becomes part of the routine technique of guidance interviews to observe, and record, for possible further attention, the quality of each student's speech.

In emphasizing, so far, the relationship of speech to vocational success, it has not been intended to imply that the counselor is not conscious of its importance in social, domestic, and civic life. How frequently the counselor has the opportunity to bring a student to the realization that unpopularity with the other girls or conflict with sisters and brothers at home, or ineffectiveness with fellow members at the club, is attributable to wrong emphasis in speech, ill chosen vocabulary, offensive tone, unpoised approach, rather than to more deep seated causes. Such guidance as this, to high school boys and girls, who are characteristically in the throes of learning to adjust to wider group living, has far reaching possibilities for their emotional development. It implies, in a dynamic way, the power of self control, for there is obviously no more delicate recorder of the emotions than speech.

The work of guidance is indeed closely related to speech work; and I have tried to suggest the responsibilities of counselors in that relationship. But I wish to add a few words about the reciprocal duties of teachers to guidance service in strengthening the relationship.

If counselors hold a strategic position on behalf of those in the school who are interested in the development of good speech, so does the speech teacher hold an equally strategic position with respect to guidance counselors interested in assisting all boys and girls with their educational and vocational plans and their personality development. How helpful it is to counselors to have ready to hand for this guidance work, the results of the speech diagnostic tests. How necessary it is for them, for instance, to get from the speech teachers the information that physiological adjustment—teeth, tonsils, hearing, low blood count rather than psychological adjustment is indicated for a particular boy. Such information as this makes possible a more intelligent integration of the various agencies working in the pupil's behalf.

Moreover, teachers of all subjects must work hand in hand with both guidance and speech departments to bring about the attainment of good speech by students. Their chief contribution, aside from upholding a common standard assisting in the identification of students who are in need of special attention, and coöperating in the treatment of them, is to have certain understandings about the speech-handicapped. For example, it is important that they be aware of the presence and persistence of speech defects in students of good mental equipment. Such an understanding would save many such students from the frustrating effects of being considered "dumbbells." Again, teachers need to realize that it is not obstinacy or sullenness, but a desire to cover up embarrassment over speech difficulties that causes some students to refuse to recite. For as Dr. Kanner tells us in *Child Psychiatry*, an essential characteristic of the temperament of the stuttering (and I think we may add the speech-handicapped) child is a marked sensitiveness to social situations. There are other examples that come to mind, but time doesn't permit more.

In conclusion, let me say that good guidance involves intimate concern with development of good speech in students because of its potentialities for promoting their vocational, social and emotional adjustment. And, further, let me express the hope that increasing understanding of the purposes that departments of guidance and speech hold in common may bring about such close relationships among all members of school faculties that the boys and girls of our high schools may be adequately guided to good speech.

ELSA G. BECKER.
Division of Guidance and
Placement.

WHAT CONSTITUTES GOOD TEACHING IN PHYSICAL SCIENCE?*

Today, we, the teachers of New York City, the teachers of New York State, and the teachers of the nation, are sending from our classrooms, boys and girls, who, twenty or thirty years from today, will have inherited the land. They will then be the judges of the nation; they will be the lawmakers of the nation; they will be the fathers and

*An address before the Science Council on February 28, 1938.

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the mothers of the nation; they will make up the boards of education, and, as such, will determine what shall be taught in the schools; they will be the teachers of the nation, and, as such, will determine how it shall be taught. What they think then, and, more especially, how they think then, will in some measure depend on, not so much what we teach them now as how we teach them. Their attitudes and reactions, in a broad sense, will be a measure of their education.

This raises the question as to what education is. Definitions may and do differ, but, in general, education, in so far as it relates to the instruction the individual receives in school and college, is that which he retains of such instruction, and which determines his behavior, twenty or thirty years after the completion of his formal training. If that is so, and I believe it is, then facts for facts sake play but a minor role in education. I am sure that in twenty or thirty years, such facts will have been quite largely forgotten. I am afraid that the biology teachers would derive very little consolation from the answers of their former pupils if they were asked the meaning of "genes." It is highly probable that they would think of them as nether garments rather than as the determiners of heredity. The physics teachers would find the answer to a question on inverse squares far from illuminating. As for the chemistry teachers, I am sure they would find their reactions going to an end through the formation of a gas if they should ask their former pupils to write the equation for the preparation of hydrogen sulphide.

Do not think for a moment that I am belittling the importance of factual matter. But my observations convince me that there are still many teachers of science who consider facts as ends in themselves rather than as a means to an end. They confuse factual matter, or mere information, with knowledge and understanding. In many cases they have not yet developed an acceptable philosophy of science teaching and have failed to understand and appreciate the major objectives of science and their significance in education.

Among such objectives would be found the training of the intellect, the development of culture, and the inculcation of good social relations. These should be set up as worthy objectives in the promulgation of any program relating to the improvement of science teaching in our high schools. The mode of procedure involved in striving for these objectives would also aid in the development of many desirable habits, skills, attitudes, and ideals. To neglect fundamental facts in connection with such work is, of course, absurd, but they must be seen in their true perspective. Facts are the raw materials out of which understanding is fashioned; and, like bricks, they are important during the building process, but largely lose their significance when the structure is completed, and become a part of the whole. Facts also play an important part in developing correct habits of thought. A thought structure cannot be built out of an empty head. Facts are building blocks in the development of the intellect and stepping stones in the reasoning process. Thinking and reasoning are not disjointed and haphazard but progress and develop according to a definite plan. Scientists, consciously or unconsciously, follow a logical pattern in their thought processes. The more I read of the lives and the works of scientists, the more I am convinced of this assertion. I have just read the life of Madame Curie by her daughter Eve. The logical mental processes connected with her research work, especially those related to the discovery of radium, were very apparent. Such a method of thinking and acting should receive serious consideration on the part of every science teacher, and should be one of his objectives in science teaching. He should see to it that his pupils are familiar with the steps involved in the so-called scientific method. The more he stresses the importance of straight thinking, and the more he exemplifies in his own thought and action such an attitude, the more hopeful he may be in his conquest against superstition, intolerance, and propaganda.

I am one of a small group of individuals who believe that we can teach the scientific method, and, to some extent, inculcate its principles and procedure in the minds of our pupils. I also believe in a transfer in training providing the situations are not too dissimilar. To what extent such training is a controlling factor in determining responses to various stimuli it is hard to know. I recognize the fact that it is impossible for a teacher to evaluate the permanent effects of his teaching on his pupils. Heredity, environment, home training and the impact of society in general all play their part in determining the nature and extent of their education. Of this, however, I am certain, that we can make our pupils conscious of the importance of certain desirable attitudes so that they become critically-minded, not only with respect to the situation used to illustrate the attitude in question, but also with respect to other situations as well.

The method of science is so important that we should provide special situations in our classroom work to teach it. In so far as chemistry is concerned, I can think of no more important experiment to introduce this work than the classic experiment of Lavoisier on combustion. I know there are those who do not agree with me on arbitrarily providing a situation to teach the scientific method. They feel that work of this character should be the outgrowth and the by-product of the regular daily teaching situation. It is of course

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true that every lesson should be so taught as to illustrate and emphasize those attitudes which we consider most desirable in daily life and most essential in developing critical-mindedness in our pupils. But we need also to set up in our teaching special situations to serve as guide posts and frames of reference. My experience and observation verify my belief that the attitudes, habits, skills and ideals, which are of paramount importance are not generally stressed in the science teaching of our high schools. For a period of ten years or more, the Science Council has taken a high stand on science teaching and has done much to make the science teachers of this city conscious of the fact that there is a scientific method and that there are certain desirable attitudes that we should stress in our teaching. The Science Council also has done a good work in acquainting the educational system with the importance of science. It should do more than it is now doing to improve the classroom teaching of science. As supervisors, we should see to it that the young teachers under our supervision, many of whom show considerable promise, should be properly trained. And in our training of these teachers and in our own teaching we should also see to it that science, the great weapon against dogmatism, is not taught dogmatically.

We are not all agreed on all of the items which are characterized as elements of good teaching, but some of them are of great importance and should be more universally observed in our teaching than they are today. They are, of course, only means to an end, but as such they play an important part, to the mutual advantage of pupils and teacher, without in any way dogmatizing the work. The following may be cited as worthy of consideration. In the items which follow only a very limited number of specific illustrations are given. The teacher may readily multiply and extend them. Space does not permit of extended illustrations here.

THE LESSON PLAN

No teacher should enter a classroom without a definite plan of the work of the day. The plan should include not only the immediate lesson but should make provision for correlation with past work and should assist in motivating and clarifying the work to come. A lesson plan on Electrolytes and Non-electrolytes, for example, should make provision for utilizing previous knowledge on water and solutions and the electrolysis of water, and should provide an easy transition to the topic of hydrolysis. A well planned lesson provides definiteness of aim and enables the teacher to keep in the foreground the major objectives of his teaching, and the ideals, attitudes and skills he wishes to stress.

THE LESSON ASSIGNMENT

Few elements of good teaching have greater significance than the lesson assignment. In spite of this, however, there is much evidence to show that the lesson assignment by the teacher, and its mastery by the pupils, assume much less importance in education today than they did a generation or more ago. The gospel of good hard work is no longer good news and in certain quarters is falling on deaf ears. A conscientious and persistent endeavor to accomplish an assigned task, unless it appeals to the imagination and the immediate interest of the pupil, is taboo in some of our modern philosophies of education. To me, this is a great mistake. School life, within the limitations of its restricted field and in keeping with the major objectives of formal education, should conform to life as it must be lived after school days are over. There are still many of us who believe that thrift, industry, and persistent effort, regardless of the immediate future, are virtues, and that the school has an obligation to society to stress these attitudes and aims to the utmost of its ability. The lesson assignment and its accompanying explanation may be made to assist in this work.

The assignment should be on the board and include the main items of the lesson. The teacher may well afford to take three or four minutes to show the pupils how to approach the assignment and to point out its relation to preceding and future work and its significance in connection with the aims and objectives of the subject. He should clarify the difficult topics so that the pupils will not find the task of preparing their lesson insurmountable. The preliminary assistance to a class which is to take up the study of the dynamo, for example, might include references to the Law of Conservation of Energy, the transformation of energy, and the relation between magnetism and electricity.

MOTIVATION

It is with some trepidation that I mention "motivation" as one of the elements of good teaching; not because it is unimportant or lacks significance in the lesson plan, but because it is difficult. I am speaking, of course, of motivation other than that which is so naturally provided, and so inherent in an experimental science. The ability to stimulate the pupils' thinking, to obtain a sustained activity, to make the subject interesting and worthwhile, to connect it up with everyday life and to make it appear vital is one of the most difficult problems in teaching. Motivation is much more than a catch phrase, slogan, reference or incident used as a bait to catch the attention of the class. All of these, however, may play a part in the motivation. The creation of a situation, real or imaginary, the presentation of a problem, references to the work of outstanding scientists, including

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stories of human and professional interest, and actual incidents and experiences in the life of the teacher all serve as stimuli to obtain the attention and sustained activity of the pupil and to make the task seem worth striving for. Brief stories dramatically told about our great scientists, as occasion requires, readily attract and hold the attention and interest of the pupils and help to make the work seem worthwhile. The story of Agassiz, illustrative of intellectual honesty, in which he said "the theory of a lifetime destroyed by a single fact," the humanitarianism and devotion of Banting in refusing to take out patents in connection with his work on hormones and ductless glands, the death of Noguchi of yellow fever, while studying the disease to save others, an attractive chart illustrating the mortality statistics in diphtheria of forty years ago and today, all make their appeal.

PURPOSEFUL OBJECTIVITY

I use the word "purposeful" advisedly, because it is so easy to make objectivity activity for activity's sake. Objectivity includes experiments, demonstrations, board work, charts, pictures, exhibits, and all similar devices. Its primary purpose is to assist in vitalizing the lesson as a whole, clarifying its aims and driving home the fundamental information. For the most part it is a means to an end.

Board work to be effective must be on a clean board set apart for the purpose, and not written hit or miss wherever board space may be available. The work must be neat, legible, not too detailed, well organized and so developed that it may, if desired, serve as a summary of the lesson of the day.

There is nothing more confusing to a class, so far as the major objectives of the lesson are concerned, than to observe a demonstration experiment performed in a hit or miss manner, and under poor conditions of visibility. A demonstration experiment, to secure and hold the interest of the class, to make a lasting impression on it, and to serve its real purpose as a teaching device, must be visible to all members of the class, must be clear and striking in its operation, definite in its purpose, and developed in such a way that it makes a real contribution to knowledge and understanding and the scientific method of procedure. Many such demonstrations readily come to mind. The action of metals with acids, metals and salt solutions, hydrolysis, and electrolytes and non-electrolytes offer splendid opportunities for logical development and to teach the scientific method. The pupils, at this point in the course, have a background that will enable them to predict, to set forth hypotheses, and to follow through with the testing process out of which will develop the generalizations.

QUESTION METHOD

Questioning is the blood stream of the recitation. It is both a science and an art. It calls for a great deal of thought and planning, and, when skilfully done, makes the greatest contribution to what may be spoken of as "artistry in teaching." Questioning is the important medium through which the teacher controls and directs the activity of the pupils, stimulates their thinking and measures their accomplishments in terms of understanding, habits, and ideals. The framing of the questions and their sequence quite largely determines the success or failure of the recitation. It is not enough to merely test information and understanding. Situations must be provided for sustained answers which give evidence of reflective thinking and judgments based on evidence. A volume might be written on this subject. Only one aspect, that to test understanding, can be mentioned here. The class has covered the topics of ammonia, carbon, carbon dioxide, and hydrocarbons. A few questions may be asked to reestablish factual matter and to lead up to the problem or situation. The problem: "You have at your command soft coal, which is the only material available except air, water and the necessary apparatus. You are to prepare a bottle of soda water, properly charged with carbon dioxide, flavored, colored, sweetened and served on a cake of ice." The questioning in connection with this problem will be such as to enable the pupils to develop the topics in a logical and scientific manner.

PUPIL-TEACHER RELATIONS

One of the most important categories in evaluating successful teaching is the pupil-teacher relation as observed in the classroom from day to day. When one observes a teacher who, habitually or frequently, calls on a pupil for information and, if it is not given forthwith, somewhat impatiently tells him to be seated, and, in like manner, continues to call on pupil after pupil until the answer is obtained, one has the right to conclude that that teacher is more interested in information—getting the answer—than he is in boys and girls. He is more concerned with factual matter than he is in bringing about changes in the attitudes and ideals of his pupils. He misses many opportunities to get children to think, to cause them to form new habits and viewpoints, and to influence their social behavior.

SUMMARY

A summary or resume of a unit or lesson is considered by most teachers as one of the important elements in good teaching. My observations, however, lead me to believe that it is the most neglected of all the various items which go to make up a lesson plan. It is always provided for in the lesson plan but it often receives scant attention from the teacher during the lesson, due primarily to faulty budgeting of his time. Summaries need not be, and often should not be, mere repetition or

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reviewing of the main items or facts of the lesson. The final clinching of the teaching period may be effectively brought about by means of creating a situation or setting up a problem in which the fundamental facts of the lesson or unit and the concomitant knowledge and understanding are used or called upon in clearing up the situation or solving the problem. The problem mentioned under the topic of question method above is a good illustration.

Aims, methods, plans, and all the other devices known to the teaching profession are very desirable in the teaching of science, and, when properly blended under the guiding hand of a skilful teacher, give us artistry in teaching and a piece of craftsmanship of high quality. These, however, do not complete the picture. Personality traits are of the utmost importance in successful teaching. We leave our marks on the lives of our pupils. We are real teachers if we can arouse their interests, fire their imaginations, create in them a desire to know the truth, and inspire them to live purposeful lives.

ERNEST L. DINSMORE.
Boys High School.

AN EFFECTIVE DISTRIBUTION SYSTEM FOR THE SCIENCE PREPARATION ROOM

Faced with the many problems that the opening of a new school presents, in addition to the preparation of materials for a department of eleven teachers, a laboratory assistant may develop one of two things: (a) nervous breakdown, or (b) an organization which will be successful enough to relieve the demands of the situation. An attempt to achieve the latter resulted in the effective distribution system developed in the Department of Biology and General Science at the Franklin K. Lane High School.

WHEN TEACHERS ORDER SUPPLIES

In a large school the question of how teachers should order supplies has always been controversial. This writer feels that any solution of this problem must be a compromise, since the point-of-view of both teacher and laboratory assistant must be considered. Pedagogically, it would be ideal for the teacher to be able to call on the full facilities of the preparation room at any time and at any turn a lesson may take.

The work of the laboratory assistant, on the other hand, would be made easier if all requests for material were sent in well in advance. This would enable an economical planning of time and work. In accordance with this idea, a compromise plan was put into effect whereby all orders for Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday (three days at once) are due on the preceding Friday. Orders for Thursday *or* Friday, however, are accepted 24 hours or less in advance. This scheme gives the advantage to the laboratory assistant the first part of the week, and to the teacher at the end of the week.

EMERGENCY ORDERS: CHANGING AN ORDER

A teacher may order additional material after his order is in. An "emergency" form is provided. This is similar to the others except that it is colored blue. By this means a teacher may take care of those classroom situations which cannot be predicted, or perhaps remedy an oversight on the original order.

A teacher may, moreover, change an order. The "Order Board" (described later) makes such a change a simple matter.

ALL ORDERS ARE KEPT ON FILE

One of the great advantages of the system is that all orders are kept on file for an entire term. This helps place responsibility and is a check where it is desirable to know which person was the last to use a piece of apparatus. It also gives an accurate indication of the extent of use of any piece of equipment.

In addition, since the regular orders are a white color, and the emergency orders are blue, it is possible to tell at a glance which teachers are abusing the privilege of emergency orders. Not only can the chairman get a bird's-eye view of the type of objective material his teachers are using, but it is also an indication of how they plan their lessons.

THE ORDER BLANK

The following is a reproduction of the order blank (1½" x 5"):

TEACHER..... DATE..... ROOM.....

PERIODS.....

RECEIVED..... RETURNED.....

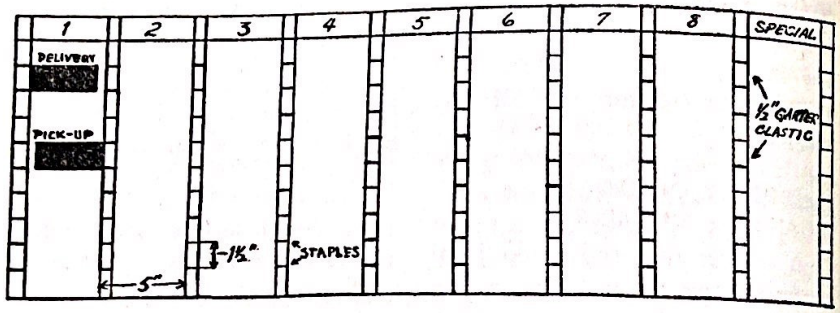
It may be made of oak tag, cardboard, or even a heavy paper. White is used for regular orders, and blue for emergency orders. Many times we have been tempted to use more colors for different purposes, but in general it has been found that simplicity in this respect makes for efficiency. In accordance with this idea, the blue "emergency" slips are used for such things as requests for models from the Health Education and Speech Departments, special ma-

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terial borrowed by students for project or club work and the continual interchange that goes on between the Physical Science and Biology Departments.

THE ORDER BOARD

The control device for the entire system is the "Order Board." Details are in the accompanying drawing.



Materials required:

½" staples.

Board made of Compo Board or Plywood (overall length 45" x 16").

½" garter elastic (obtainable in the five and ten cent store).

Note: The overall dimensions of the board depend on the number of periods and the number of orders anticipated per period. The figures 45" x 16" allows for 8 periods and a maximum of 10 orders per period.

OPERATION OF THE ORDER BOARD

To understand the operation of the Order Board, let us follow an order as it comes into the Preparation Room. A typical order might be the following:

TEACHER.....Mr. Smith..... DATE.....3/8/38..... ROOM.....347.....

PERIODS.....1, 2, 7,.....

MODEL OF EYE, SET OF DEMONSTRATION LENSES
SMOKE BOX, ARC LIGHT

RECEIVED..... RETURNED.....

As the order comes into the Preparation Room, it is stamped with the date of arrival. (Date stampers cost 10 cents in the five and ten cent store.) This procedure has frequently proved its worth. Where more than one teacher asks for an identical piece of apparatus for the same period, simple justice may be done by giving preference to the earliest request. Teachers are more likely to get their orders in on time as a result. All the incoming orders are then filed according to the day needed. (Specifications for making a simple file will be sent on request.)

The actual preparation of orders is begun during the latter part of the day. One boy on the Laboratory Squad is detailed to the job of placing the cards on the Order Board according to the period when delivery is to be made. (It is possible to train a boy to prepare most of the routine orders.) The prepared orders are then placed on the "Outgoing" shelf according to the period to be delivered.

On the following day, one of the Laboratory Squad goes to the Order Board, removes all the 1st period slips, takes the prepared material from the "Outgoing" shelf and delivers it (by cart) to the proper room. The teacher then writes his initials next to the word "Received . . ." on the original order slip that the boy presents. The slip is then brought back to the "Order Board" and placed so that it will be ready for a "pick-up."

HOW THE ORDER BOARD FUNCTIONS FOR DELIVERIES AND PICK-UPS

To a large degree, the success and labor-saving benefits of the system depend on the accuracy with which the following maneuvers are carried out on the "Order Board."

"Order Blanks" are inserted on the "Order Board" by slipping them under the piece of garter rubber. Only one end need be inserted to keep the strip of cardboard in place. Delivery slips are placed at the *left* while pick-up slips are placed at the *right* of any particular column, as indicated on the order-board diagram.

As an example, if the material is to be used during periods 1, 2, and 7, it will be placed at the *left* hand side of column 1 for delivery. When the material is delivered, and the teacher initials the original order next to the word "Received . . ." the slip is then placed at the *right* side of column 7 for pick-up. This means that the material would remain in the teacher's possession from the time it was delivered until the end of the 7th period. The above represents the normal procedure. There are instances, however, when it is not desirable to have the teacher keep the material for the entire time. An example of such a case would be an order for a microscope. In this case, the pick-up would be made at the end of the 2nd period and the order slip inserted for delivery the 7th period. It would then be picked up again at the end of the 7th. Pick-ups are begun five minutes before the end of the period. It has been found very convenient to use an Interval Timer as a signal.

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The laboratory assistant writes his initials after the word "Returned . . ." on the original order. The completed slip is then filed for the term.

THE TRANSFER TABLE

One section of shelves in the stock room has been set aside as a so-called "Transfer Table." On this is placed material to be used for the week. For example, when the topic of "Light" is reached, the necessary apparatus is placed on the "Transfer Table." Here it stays available until the topic is completed, when it is restored to its permanent place in a closet or shelf. Apparatus borrowed from the Physical Science Department is also kept on the transfer table during the interval it is in use.

By this means it is possible to concentrate the material needed during each week. One boy is detailed to keep the stock room shelves and transfer table in good order.

DEMONSTRATION TABLE

As an aid to both teacher and laboratory assistant each demonstration table has been equipped as described below. A member of the laboratory squad inspects the tables each month and keeps them fully supplied. It has been found that the standard demonstration table design is not adequate for the type of work done at this school. Schwartz cabinets are even less satisfactory.

Each demonstration table is equipped with the following materials: Beakers, test tubes, funnels, small crucibles, Thistle tubes, lamp chimneys, graduated cylinders, Bunsen burner, fish tail, crucible tongs, matches, clamps, rings, pinch clamps, test tube holder, wire gauze, deflagrating spoon, iron wire, round file, triangular file, pliers, ice pick, scissors, hammer, screw driver, knife, scalpel, friction tape.

Absorbent cotton, sheets or rubber, cellophane, cardboard, glass, cork, tin foil, asbestos, cloth, nails, pins, screws, thumbtacks, leadshot, paper clips, rubber bands, balloons, two mirrors, fishing cord.

Porcelain pans, collecting bottles, Florence and Erlenmeyer flasks, Petri dishes.

Glass tubing, glass rods, glass plates (3" square).

Rubber stoppers, corks, rubber tubing.

Extension cord, test lamp.

Teacher's individual drawer, (for paper, etc.).

ADVANTAGES OF THE SYSTEM

The system described has the following advantages:

1. Little bookkeeping is involved. The teacher's original order is the only record necessary.
2. Responsibility is fixed. It is possible to ascertain at a glance just where the material is, and who is using it.
3. A complete record of all apparatus used during the term is available.
4. *The teacher's point of view:*
   a. There is only one form to fill out.
   b. He is encouraged to plan his work in advance.
   c. Apparatus is made easily available for emergency or unusual situations.
   d. Orders may be changed easily.
5. *The Laboratory Assistant's point of view:*
   a. The system is almost automatic. The Laboratory squad can take care of practically the entire routine.
   b. With no more bookkeeping than the teacher's original order, it is possible to keep a complete record of all apparatus used.
   c. The cause of missing or broken material may be easily traced.
   d. Complete control of all apparatus.
6. *The Chairman's point of view:*
   a. Responsibility for apparatus is always fixed.
   b. A complete record is always available.
   c. The file is some indication as to how teachers plan their lessons.

S. Y. STILLMAN.

Franklin K. Lane High School.

June 1938.

HIGH POINTS

ENROLLMENT IN THE DIFFERENT FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS AS OF MARCH 1, 1939

Languages	*8A*	*8B*	*9A*	*9B*	*RB*	*RC*	*RD*	*Total*
French	7,818	8,325	6,637	6,837	4,466	3,655	3,456	41,194
German	448	592	414	422	365	334	268	2,843
Hebrew	.....	52	.....	.....	44	22	36	154
Italian	1,316	1,483	1,218	1,302	273	311	264	6,167
Latin	218	242	196	220	575	405	455	2,311
Spanish	1,362	1,317	920	880	255	70	89	4,893
	11,162	12,011	9,385	9,661	5,978	4,797	4,568	57,562

Total Junior High School Population: 133,640.

ENROLLMENT IN THE DIFFERENT FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS AS OF MARCH 1, 1939

Languages	*I*	*II*	*III*	*IV*	*V*	*VI*	*VII*	*VIII*	*Total*
French	9,189	9,760	16,178	14,856	7,580	7,448	526	295	65,832
German	2,565	3,078	2,981	3,100	1,172	1,080	43	25	14,044
Greek	13	12	8	5	3	6	.....	.....	47
Hebrew	572	706	499	469	177	142	.....	.....	2,565
Italian	2,375	2,167	2,277	1,781	916	730	107	52	10,405
Latin	4,663	4,692	4,200	4,086	1,608	1,431	234	201	21,115
Spanish	9,857	8,829	7,650	7,204	1,465	1,384	111	19	36,519
	29,234	29,244	33,793	31,501	12,921	12,221	1,021	592	150,527

Total High School Population:

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HIGH SCHOOL DIRECTORY

Borough of Manhattan

High School	*Address*	*Principal or *Teacher-in-Charge*	*Administrative Assistant*	*Telephone*
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN	309 East 108th St.	Leonard Covello	Abraham Kroll	Lehigh 4-2718-9-20
79th St. Annex	209 East 79th St.	Harry Levene*		Butterfield 8-7623
117 St. Annex	117 St. and 1st Ave.	Dr. Morris C. Deshel*		Lehigh 4-3092
GEORGE WASHINGTON	192 St. and Audubon Ave.	Arthur A. Boylan	Max Schottland	Wash. Hts. 7-1841
Isham Annex, P. S. 98	212th St. and Broadway	Julia K. Ross*	Carolyn P. Swett	Lorraine 7-6744
Fort Tryon Annex, P. S. 187	Northern Ave., north of 187th St.	David H. Frank*		Wadsworth 3-7300
HAAREN	899 Tenth Avenue	R. Wesley Burnham	Miss Kate Monro	Columbus 5-5049
Annex I	120 West 46th St.	Dr. Frank J. Arnold*	Edward Dewing	Bryant 9-2033
Annex II	215 East 99th St.	Philip J. Pinkus*		Sacramento 2-6540
Annex III	125 West 54th St.	Alson B. Upham*		Circle 7-5262
Annex IV	232 East 103rd St.	Paul Frabbito*		Lehigh 4-4581
H. S. OF COMMERCE	155 West 65th St.	Edward J. McNamara	Charles J. Lagerwall	Trafalgar 7-5832
Annex, P. S. 58	317 West 52nd St.	Harold Lindquist*	Alfred Duschatko	Columbus 5-3287
H. S. OF MUSIC AND ART	135th St. and Convent Ave.	Benjamin M. Steigman	Arthur J. Barrett	Edgecomb 4-0870
JULIA RICHMAN	317 East 67th St.	Michael H. Lucey	Anna Goldberg	Regent 4-5640
Annex, P. S. 18	121 East 51st St.	Genevieve A. Hayes*	Delina Blanche Howell	Plaza 3-4577
Annex, P. S. 70	213 East 75th St.	Edna K. Franklin*		Butterfield 8-1823
Annex, P. S. 77	1646 First Avenue	Mildred Sanborn*		Regent 4-5540
Annex, P. S. 183	419 East 66th St.	Gertrude Reier*		Regent 4-6138
SEWARD PARK	350 Grand Street	Robert B. Brodie	A. W. Klein	Orchard 4-1515
Annex, P. S. 4	203 Rivington St.	Philip Leight*	Edna Lewinson	Drydock 4-1568
Annex, P. S. 21	222 Mott Street	John Goldhaar*		Canal 6-6924
Annex, P. S. 22	104 Sheriff Street	Maxwell L. Heller*		Orchard 4-4151
STUYVESANT	345 East 15th Street	Sinclair J. Wilson	John P. Clark Frank C. Panuska	Algonquin 4-3140
STRAUBENMULLER TEXTILE	351 W. 18th St.	Dr. Wm. H. Dooley	H. Norman Ford	Chelsea 3-7370
Annex	60 West 13th St.	Mrs. Ethel Oakley*	Dr. Marcella A. Bartley	Algonquin 4-3468
Annex	124 West 28th St.	Dr. Jessie W. Hughan*		Longacre 5-3158
Annex	124 West 30th St.	James A. Biggs*		Pennsylvania 6-2286
Annex	521 West 145th St.	Austin G. Clark*		Edgecomb 4-3422
WADLEIGH	215 West 114th St.	Miss Margaret C. Byrne	Miss Clara L. Carson	Monument 2-8312-3
102 St. Annex	140 West 102nd St.	Miss Eleanor S. Doty*	Miss Anna T. Burchard	Academy 2-8662
WASHINGTON IRVING	40 Irving Place	Edward Cornell Zabriskie	Miss Edith Pownall Miss Dorothea Eltzner	Algonquin 4-3776

* Teacher-in-charge.

Borough of The Bronx

High School	*Address*	*Principal or *Teacher-in-Charge*	*Administrative Assistant*	*Telephone*
DEWITT CLINTON	Mosholu Parkway and Paul Avenue	A. Mortimer Clark	Frank Boylan P. William Zingaro	Halifax 5-1000-1-2
CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS	Astor & Colden Aves.	John M. Loughran	Andre C. Fontaine Mrs. Mary G. Ascher	Olinville 5-2900
EVANDER CHILDS	Gun Hill Road & Barnes Ave.	Hymen Alpern	Katherine Cuniffe	Estabrook 8-5900
Annex, P. S. 19	234 St. & Kepler Ave.	Geo. H. Van Tuyl*	John A. Donohoe	Fairbanks 4-1312
Annex, P. S. 41	Olinville Ave. and Magenta St.	Clayton G. Durfee*		Olinville 2-3832
H. S. OF SCIENCE	184th St. & Creston Ave.	Dr. Morris Meister	Dr. Herman E. Mantel	Sedgwick 3-6700
JAMES MONROE	1300 Boynton Ave.	Henry E. Hein	Israel Appell	Tivoli 2-3600
Annex 14	3041 Eastern Blvd.	Benjamin Strumpf*	Anne D. Cashen	Westchester 7-3947
Annex 29	Cypress Ave. & 135th St.	Jacob Feldman*		Mott Haven 9-3756
Annex 48	Spofford Ave. & Faile St.	L. Brewster Smith*		Dayton 9-7582
Annex 66	1001 Jennings St.	Samuel Schuman*		Dayton 9-4048
Annex 69	Randall & Theriot Aves.	Abraham J. Bernstein*		Westchester 7-5252
MORRIS	166 St. & Boston Rd.	Elmer E. Bogart	Frank M. Surrey	Kilpatrick 5-5100
Washington Avenue	176 St. & Washington Ave.	William T. Driscoll*	Charlotte G. Knox	Tremont 2-5380
Brook Avenue	141 St. & Brook Ave.	Emma B. Bryant*		Mott Haven 9-3493
Third Avenue	157 St. & Third Ave.	Herman M. Elkan*		Melrose 5-6020
Brown Place	135 St. & Brown Place	John A. Hess*		Mott Haven 9-3989
THEODORE ROOSEVELT	500 East Fordham Road	William W. Rogers	Mrs. Alice B. Richards	Raymond 9-0700
Annex, P. S. 85	187 St. & Marion Ave.	Mrs. Vera C. Martini*	Richard Scheib	Raymond 9-0281
WALTON	Reservoir Ave. & W. 195th St.	Miss Marion C. Cahill	Simon J. Jason	Raymond 9-4132
Annex, P. S. 95	Sedgwick, Norman & Gouverneur Aves.	William H. Corbett*	Miss Julia E. Holste	Halifax 5-2041

Borough of Brooklyn

ABRAHAM LINCOLN	Ocean Parkway and West Ave.	Gabriel R. Mason	Arthur Hirschberg	Mayflower 9-5474
ALEXANDER HAMILTON	150 Albany Ave.	Dr. Jacob M. Ross	Bertha Cohen	President 4-4180
Annex, P. S. 83	1630 Dean St.	Harvey L. Bagenstose*	Raymond L. Noonan	President 4-6558
BAY RIDGE	67th St. and 4th Ave.	Elizabeth T. Fitzpatrick	Clifford H. Coon	Shore Road 8-0204
Annex	63rd St. and 4th Ave.	Marguerite E. McGuire*	Mabel R. Benway	Sunset 6-0606
BOYS HIGH	832 Marcy Ave.	Alfred A. Tausk	Miriam T. Whitaker	Main 2-4310-1
Annex, P. S. 11	Waverly and Greene Aves.	Robert I. Raiman*	George C. Hanson	Prospect 9-7101
Annex, P. S. 43	Boerum and Manhattan Ave.	Charles E. Hughes*	Richard L. Swanton	Stagg 2-4340
BROOKLYN TECHNICAL	29 Ft. Greene Place	Albert L. Colston	Ralph Breiling	Sterling 3-0135-6-7
Annex, P. S. 69	155 Ryerson St.	Harry A. Cohan*	Charles E. Ledley	Prospect 9-0650

* Teacher-in-charge.

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High School	Address	Principal or *Teacher-in-Charge	Administrative Assistant	Telephone
Bushwick Annex, P. S. 151	400 Irving Avenue Halsey St. and Knickerbocker Ave.	Milo F. McDonald Fannie Clement*	Benjamin Greenwald	Foxcroft 9-5500 Glenmore 2-4592
Eastern District Annex, P. S. 51	227 Marcy Avenue Meeker Ave. and Humboldt St.	Thos. H. McCormick-Acting Dr. Matthew J. Murray*	Dr. Willard S. Sprague	Stagg 2-0791-2 Evergreen 8-4589
Erasmus Hall Annex, P. S. 235	911 Flatbush Ave. E. 40th St. and Lenox Rd.	Dr. John F. McNeill William Elbert*	Mrs. Katherine C. Edgell William J. Stratton	Buckminster 2-7803 President 3-1181
Franklin K. Lane	Jamaica Ave. at Dexter Court	Charles E. Springmeyer	M. Christine Lietz Jacob Peshkin	Applegate 7-3000
Girls Annex, P. S. 75	Nostrand Ave. and Halsey St. Evergreen Ave. and Grove St.	Dr. Rowena K. Keyes Miss Sydney Parsons*	Maud Miller	Nevins 8-2635 Foxcroft 9-7520
Girls Commercial Annex, Maxwell Annex, St. Marks	Classon Ave. and Union St. 801 Park Place St. Marks and Classon Ave.	Evelyn W. Allan Helen W. Bryant* Mildred K. Bentley*	Dania Kysor Ida St. John Oye	Sterling 3-5890 Sterling 3-3640 Main 2-7660
Lafayette	Benson Ave. and Bay 43rd St.	Dr. Frederick Wm. Oswald	Miss Dorothy R. Lewis Joseph Grady	
James Madison Annex	Bedford Ave. at Quentin Road Avenue R and E. 16th St.	William R. Lasher Max Eisenmann*	George B. Downing Dorothy Zehner	Nightingale 4-0400 Esplanade 2-7641
Manual Training Annex, P. S. 10 Annex, P. S. 94 (old)	237—7th Ave. 7th Ave. and 17th St. 1258 Prospect Ave.	Horace M. Snyder Emmett O'Donnell* J. Clarence Smith*	Emily S. Peck Patrick J. Keenan	South 8-9636 South 8-4767 South 8-4628
New Utrecht High Annex 192 Annex 3 Annex 105	79th St. and 17th Ave. 18th Ave. and 47th St. 86th St. and 18th Ave. Fort Hamilton Pkwy and 59th St.	Maurice E. Rogalin Tessie M. Jamer* Eva Robinson* Barney Hyman*	Mrs. Anita Appel Dr. F. A. Leuchs	Beachview 2-2502 Ambassador 2-6851 Bensonhurst 6-0711 Windsor 5-2181
Samuel J. Tilden Annex	Tilden Ave. and E. 57th St. Kingston Ave. and Park Place	Abraham Lefkowitz Albert C. Zahn*	John A. Shea Olga H. Hingsburg	Minnesota 9-5300 President 4-1228
Thomas Jefferson Annex, P. S. 63 (old) Annex, P. S. 63 (new) Annex, P. S. 150	Pennsylvania and Dumont Aves. Hinsdale St. and Glenmore Ave. Williams Ave. and Glenmore Ave. Sackman St. and Belmont Ave.	Elias Lieberman Joseph Newman* Louis A. Goldman* Miss Flora Shore*	Samuel Levine Miss Edith Simons	Dickens 2-3500 Dickens 6-3920 Dickens 2-3570 Dickens 6-4066

Borough of Queens

High School	Address	Principal or *Teacher-in-Charge	Administrative Assistant	Telephone
Andrew Jackson	Cross Island Blvd. and 116th Ave., St. Albans	Ralph W. Haller	J. Allison Stevenson Elisabeth Brogan	Laurelton 8-4220

* Teacher-in-charge.

Bayside	*208th St. and 32nd Ave., Bayside*	Dr. George J. Crane	Alice J. Judson George H. Barmeyer	Bayside 9-7600
Bryant *Annex, Queens Cont.* *Annex, Manufacturers Trust Bldg.*	*41st Ave. and 29th St., L.I.C.* *47th Ave., 37th to 38th Sts.* *29-28 Hunter Ave., L.I.C.*	James P. Warren Catherine J. McEntegart* Hector Laguardia*	Marie L. Johnston Vincent J. Loughran	Stillwell 4-1762 Stillwell 4-8975 Stillwell 4-0251
Far Rockaway	Ocean Crest Blvd. and Beach 25th St., Far Rockaway	Augustus Ludwig	Elizabeth G. Hoffman	Far Rockaway 7-8902
Flushing	Northern Blvd. and Union St.	John V. Walsh	Joseph F. Waring	Flushing 9-0456
Grover Cleveland Annex 67 Annex 71	2127 Himrod St., Ridgewood Central Ave. near Cooper Ave., Glendale Forest Ave. near Metropolitan Ave., Ridgewood	Dr. Charles A. Tonsor Martin E. Greegan* Dr. Ellis Johnson*	Philip E. McCaffrey Miss Anna H. Fink	Hegeman 3-4066 Hegeman 3-3294 Hegeman 3-2079
Jamaica Annex, P. S. 109 Annex, P. S. 170	168 St. and Gothic Drive 213th St. and 92nd Ave., Queens Village Parsons Blvd. and Gilman Ave.	Charles H. Vosburgh C. Leslie Jaynes* Joseph F. Cashman*	Roscoe A. Grant Mabel Bernhard	Republic 9-5942 Missouri 7-4454 Republic 9-4246
John Adams Annex, No. 46	102nd St. and Rockway Blvd., Ozone Park 114th St. and Old South Rd., Howard Beach	William A. Clarke Joseph V. Middleton*	William A. Patterson Marie L. Keller	Cleveland 3-5760 Hinkley 6-7810
Newtown Annex, P. S. 12 Annex, P. S. 89 Annex, P. S. 13 Annex, P S. 25	48-01—90th St., Elmhurst 42nd Ave. and 72nd St., Winfield Hampton St. and Britton Ave., Elmhurst Corona Ave. near 90th St. Kissena Blvd., Flushing	Alfred S. Roberts Thomas E. Croake* Wallace K. Crouthamel* Clinton E. Skifstad*	Charlotte Eggleston John M. Baker, Jr.	Newtown 9-3577 Havemeyer 4-6204 Havemeyer 4-7962 Jamaica 6-3420
Richmond Hill Annex 56 Annex 90	8930—114th St. 8610—114th St. 8650—109th St.	Matthew L. Dann Harris M. Kanwit* Christian R. Stevenson*	John C. Atwater Helen A. Koch	Cleveland 3-4007-8 Richmond Hill 2-0656 Richmond Hill 2-6561

Borough of Richmond

High School	Address	Principal or *Teacher-in-Charge	Administrative Assistant	Telephone
Curtis	Hamilton Ave. and St. Marks Pl., St. George, S.I.	John M. Avent	Mildred K. Kammerer John W. Morris	Gibraltar 7-4320-1
New Dorp	New Dorp, S.I.	William M. Barlow	Miss Mary Hankinson	Dongan Hills 6-1411
Tottenville	Academy St., Tottenville	Dr. Mary E. Meade		Tottenville 8-1828
Port Richmond	Port Richmond, S.I.	Wm. M. Halloran	Mrs. Charlotte H. Benner	Gibraltar 2-6119

* Teacher-in-charge.

Esther M. Kooperman.

Boys High School.

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ELEVENTH YEAR MATHEMATICS OR FUSION VS. CONFUSION MATHEMATICS*

Having taught Eleventh Year Mathematics in the Abraham Lincoln High School for the past five years, I feel in a position to make a few remarks regarding the fusion of Intermediate Algebra with Trigonometry. No one has done more for the integrated mathematics movement than the pioneer, Prof. Swenson. Lately he has been assisted by Aaron Freilich, chairman of Mathematics at Lafayette High School, Henry H. Shanholt, Chairman of Mathematics at the Abraham Lincoln High School, and Joseph P. McCormack, Chairman of Mathematics at Theodore Roosevelt High School.

A careful study of some of the third year fusion books will convince any doubting Thomas that it is not only possible but also highly desirable to remove intermediate algebra and plane trigonometry from their separate water-tight compartments and to integrate and fuse them into one unified, logical and comprehensive whole. Instead of treating algebra and trigonometry as two separate subjects, they are so fused that the student is no longer confused. He is unaware that he is studying what heretofore have been two distinct courses. He no longer feels restrained and constrained to do trigonometry problems trigonometrically and algebra problems algebraically. He may, quite advantageously, and frequently at quite a saving in time, do trigonometry problems algebraically and algebraic problems trigonometrically. Again, the fact that he has a double-edged tool with which to work renders him a more confident and more competent artisan. He is now in a better position to appreciate the power of mathematics because he himself has developed greater power in analyzing and solving certain situations. We present algebra and trigonometry as a single panorama and we train the pupil to apply the same techniques in the analysis of any algebraic or trigonometric problems that have to be solved for a clearer view of this panorama. Thus we are carrying out one of the primary purposes of the teaching of mathematics, namely the development of the powers of understanding and analyzing relations of quantity and of space which are necessary to an insight into and control over our environment.

This fused course called by The Board of Regents "Third Year Mathematics" has several other advantages over the separate courses. There is a longer exposure to the subjects due to the fact that each can be used in the study of the other. Whereas, heretofore, all of intermediate algebra had to be crowded into one single short term, necessitating considerable memorizer work, lack of thoroughness and understanding, and intensive cramming for Regents examinations, it is now possible to expose the pupil to the subject of algebra for an entire year if the Fusion course is elected. The effect of this longer exposure is the enrichment of the algebra course making it more interesting and meaningful for the pupil. He can now study, leisurely and with profit, the factor theorem, the graphic solution of mixture, rate and work problems, the solution of three equations with three unknowns and its application to the finding of the equation of a parabola being given three points on it, approximate numbers and significant figures, the theory of proportion and variation, elementary analytics including, slope, parallel and perpendicular lines, intercept and slope intercept forms of the straight line equations, the use of the slope intercept form of the straight line equation to find the equation of a line given two points on it, or given its slope and a point on it, the distance formula and so forth, the meaning and use of statistics including the normal frequency curve, the mean, median and mode as measures of central tendency, the range, the quartile deviation, the average deviation and the standard deviation as measures of variability or dispersion, correlation, the geometric interpretation of complex numbers, the notion that multiplication by "i" means a rotation through ninety degrees in a counter-clockwise direction, the graphic representation of complex numbers and the graphic addition of complex numbers, and a host of other subjects which are called optional topics in the Intermediate Algebra Regents Syllabus and which are in the main omitted by a majority of the teachers of the subject for the reasons stated above.

The same can be said for the other part of "Fusion Mathematics," namely trigonometry. In the one year combination course optional topics such as forces and their resolution, finding an angle in radians given the arc and the radius, the polar representation of the complex number and its application to the finding of the resultant of two forces, the derivation of De Moivre's Theorem and its application to the trigonometric solution of algebraic equations and to the finding of the roots of a complex number, the study and use of the slide rule which is based on the principles of logarithms but which replaces the table of mantissas with a logarithic scale, plane sailing can readily be taught and assimilated.

There is also a considerable gain in time, inasmuch as many of the topics such as logarithms and radicals, occur in both subjects and in a fusion course need be taught only once. Furthermore, the opportunity to make immediate use of these topics lends interest by

*An address delivered March, 11, 1939 at the Panel Discussions of the Association of Chairmen and Teachers of Mathematics.

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making the reason for studying them more apparent to the student. Again, instead of separate reviews at the end of each half year for each of the Regents, only one general review of algebra and trigonometry combined is necessary for the third year Regents paper, thus releasing at least two weeks of dull monotonous, routine and stultifying Regents review and drill, for live and interesting discussions of vital and stimulating subjects.

There is an added advantage to this one year course in that one teacher can be assigned to teach the entire course, thus putting her in a position to know her pupils better, their capacities, abilities and shortcomings. Thus, when the second semester begins it is not necessary for the teacher to go through the tedious process of again "discovering" her pupils. She knows them. She begins work where she left off. No beginning of the term instructions are necessary. No time is wasted on ordinary routine matters. Work is begun immediately.

Furthermore, a poor student who ordinarily would fail at the end of a six months' course may now be carried along for the remainder of the year with the probability of passing the year's course.

Lastly, third year mathematics offers the teacher a splendid opportunity of integrating and unifying all of high school mathematics with the exception of the fourth year. Here is the "Open Sesame" for the pupil that leads him out of the confusion of the separate pigeon-holed subjects of algebra, geometry and trigonometry into one meaningful fused mathematics course. Here is a golden opportunity for the student to be shown the interrelationship of all branches of mathematics. For example, the teacher should derive the trigonomtric formulae

$$\sin\frac{A}{2}=\sqrt{\frac{(S-b)(S-c)}{bc}}$$

$$\cos\frac{A}{2}=\sqrt{\frac{S(S-a)}{bc}}$$

$$\tan\frac{A}{2}=\frac{r}{S-a} \text{ where } r=\sqrt{\frac{(S-a)(S-b)(S-c)}{S}}$$

$$\text{Area of a } \Delta = \sqrt{S(S-a)(S-b)(S-c)} \quad \text{etc.}$$

because here is a ... gebra extensively. Then the same formule should be derived and checked geometrically to show how the algebra and trigonometry dovetail and tie up with geometry. In the $\tan\frac{A}{2}$ formula "r" is shown to be the radius of the inscribed circle. In the Law of Sines the ratio of any side of a scalene triangle to the sine of the opposite angle is shown to be constant and equal to the diameter of the circumscribed circle, etc. The pupil now feels, and rightly so, that he is studying mathematics. He begins to gain confidence when he feels he has three fields of knowledge at his beck and call rather than just one.

If this third year course can do so much towards a mathematical awakening within a pupil, how much more would one single three year integrated course do for this pupil. It seems to me we are heading inevitably in that direction. Therein lies our salvation. Therein lies our hope for successful mathematics teaching. Therein lies our possibility of putting mathematics across the pedagogic footlights.

JULIUS FREILICH.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

IMPROVING FACULTY CONFERENCES

At Thomas Jefferson, the general conference is organized along democratic lines. This has been the case since the school was first organized. Formerly, the general procedure was as follows: the principal and the administration briefly addressed the assembled teachers on official matters. Detailed instructions were usually put into weekly calendars, term calendars, and supplementary mimeographed sheets. In no case did a conference consist of reading the mimeographed matter by the principal or administration to the assembled teachers. After the official part of the program, the meeting was turned over to a teacher who acted as chairman of the program committee. This teacher not only arranged for the program and the speakers, but also presided at these meetings.

In an endeavor to improve these conferences and to make them more useful to the teacher body, a thorough study by the use of questionnaires and personal consultations was made of teacher reaction. Teachers were invited to make suggestions freely or to cöoperate in improving the monthly meeting. It was obvious that the general conference was not as effective as it might be because of several important factors. First, teachers were fatigued in the afternoon and tended to be drowsy listeners. Second, it was difficult to find speakers and subjects which would interest the entire faculty of 250 members, most of whom have varied interests. In very few instances did any speaker or program interest or excite the entire fac-

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ulty. Speakers and programs which aroused enthusiastic response from some teachers often raised critical comment from others who thought that the meeting represented a waste of time. Third, because of the size of the faculty, meetings were held in the auditorium. This discouraged many teachers from taking an active part in the proceedings. Discussions which should have aroused interest among the entire faculty usually brought response from the same few who enjoyed addressing large audiences. Most of the faculty, however, perhaps because of the coldness and size of the auditorium, preferred to remain passive and unresponsive listeners.

An improvement in the conference had to take into consideration all these factors. After long study of the subject, it was decided to experiment with a series of panel or group discussion instead of lectures or discussions before the entire faculty. Teachers were asked to submit suggestions as to what topics interested them and also as to what form and procedure they preferred. A committee went over all of these suggestions and finally summarized them under the following five topics.

1. The problem of the maladjusted child
2. Recent trends in educational theory and practice
3. A unified guidance set-up
4. Creative work for pupils of above average ability
5. Social problems and education.

Teachers were now presented with a choice of five topics and each one chose that which was of greatest interest or usefulness to him. Since each panel represented a relatively small group of people, with common interests, there was active participation of most teachers, instead of the passive listening as had been the case formerly. Lively discussion replaced lectures.

At the end of one term, a census was taken to determine teacher reaction to this type of program. Most teachers voted for a continuation of panel discussions and some offered suggestions for slight and unimportant modifications.

At the present time the procedure for the monthly conference is as follows: First, there is a brief musical program. This consists of a very short piece on the organ, the piano; or it may be a duet, a vocal solo, or any other form of music. The principal and the administration then briefly take up such official matters as are important. This part of the program seldom exceeds fifteen minutes. Then opportunity is given for those who have any announcements which they wish to bring before the assembled faculty.

In controversial matters, or in those requiring a vote on the part of the faculty, a definite procedure is followed. The purpose of this is to prevent the abuse of free speech on the one hand. Teachers objecting to having important matters thrust upon them for a decision without their receiving sufficient time for deliberation before rendering their decision.

The procedure required for the submission of controversial matters or those requiring a vote is to place the matter before a committee of the teachers' organization. If the matter is approved, a mimeographed sheet stating the question at issue and providing for a vote is placed in the letter box of each teacher several days in advance of the conference. The sheet states "At the next conference you will be asked to discuss or vote upon the following matter." In emergencies, or should matters arise requiring sudden action, this procedure may be waived.

The first part of the conference is then over and teachers go to the various panels which they chose. Each panel is in charge of a chairman appointed for the term by a committee. Attendance slips are collected by panel chairmen and turned into the office. The duration of the meeting devoted to discussion at the panels varies with the interest of the teachers, the nature of the discussion, and the amount of time available. The arrangement is flexible and there is no compulsion exercised.

At times matters arise which interest the entire faculty. Then, instead of having panels that day, the meeting is continued in the auditorium before the entire assembled body. The flexibility of the arrangement permits small group discussions when preferable, or meetings of the entire faculty when it becomes desirable to hold such meetings.

While this type of conference does not please everyone, it has proved to be a great improvement over previous faculty meetings.

JACOB KLEIN.
Thomas Jefferson High School.

A LESSON ON CHECKING THE TRIAL BALANCE

It seems to the writer that we must stress more and more the technique of checking bookkeeping records. Most of the training in bookkeeping consists of recording and interpreting business records. Should we not devote more time to the checking and testing of these records?

The finest motivation for this work is the failure to get a correct trial balance. Faced with this problem, a definite technique should be taught. Below is an exercise which I use in first term bookkeeping to accomplish this purpose.

Jan. 1—J. Jones began business with Cash 2,000, Mdse. 3,000
5—Sold merchandise for cash 800
6—Bought stationery for cash 50
7—Bought merchandise for cash 1850
8—Sold merchandise to A. Ames on account 500
15—Owner took cash for own use 300

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LEDGER

Cash

Jan. 1	2000—	Jan. 6	50—
5	800—	7	1800—

Merchandise Inventory

Jan. 1	3000—		

J. Jones, Capital

		Jan. 1	5000—

Sales Income

		Jan. 5	800—
		Jan. 8	500—

Stationery

Jan. 6	50—		

Purchases

Jan. 7	1850—		

A. Ames

Jan. 8	500—		

J. Jones, Personal

Jan. 15	300—		

J. JONES

Trial Balance January 31, 1939

Cash	2,800—	
Merchandise Inventory	3,000—	
J. Jones, Capital		5,000—
Sales Income		1,300—
Stationery	15—	
Purchases	1,850—	
A. Ames	500—	
J. Jones, Personal		300—
	6,065—	6,600—

First, we review the purpose of a trial balance and how it is prepared. Then, we discuss what mistakes a trial balance will disclose and what mistakes it will not disclose. Each student is given a copy of the above exercise and it is explained that it is the work of a student, I. M. Kareless. This boy can't get a correct trial balance and he doesn't know what to do. How shall we proceed?

We discuss the need for a logical, orderly procedure. We finally agree on the following steps:

1. Re-add the trial balance.
2. Compare the balances of the accounts with those in the trial balance as regards (a) correct amount (b) correct column.
3. Check the arithmetic in the accounts.
4. Check the entries from the transactions.

Every member of the class follows the above procedure and corrects I. M. Kareless's work. Excitement rises and when we finally get to the climax—a correct trial balance—the result is usually a great burst of applause.

Here is a lesson that develops important bookkeeping procedures and yet is as interesting and exciting as a detective mystery.

HENRY OWEN.

James Monroe High School.

EFFICIENCY IN CHARACTER RATING

The new permanent record sheet upon which a committee of high school principals is reporting, places considerable emphasis on the rating of character. The question is frequently asked, "Why increase clerical work?" Perhaps the experience of our school may give an indication of the reason.

We have been using for some years a rating scheme involving three brackets; "A", above average; "N", average or normal; "D", below normal or deficient. We have made no scientific attempt to get fine distinctions in rating. Through these three brackets we have been looking for the broader indications of difficulties so that remedial procedures might be adopted. It is the practice to have the administrative assistants or their associate teachers in character development, interview all pupils who received two or more "A's" in character and two or more "D's" in character. We thus attack the problem from both ends. The grade advisers and homeroom teachers are given the problem of interviewing those who receive only "N's" and no "A's" or "N's."

An illustration of the effectiveness of the interviews is found in the following report by Mr. Frank Harris, the teacher in charge of the interviews. It will be noticed that boys who in 1938 had five "D's" in character and boys who had four and three "D's" in character have so improved their ratings that not one of them appears with this number of ratings against him in 1939, and that of the group that had two or more "D's" in character thirty-one received not a single "D" in character in 1939. Noteworthy also is the fact that the number of boys receiving two "D's" in character in 1938 has been reduced to nine in 1939.

The conclusion to be drawn from this report is that character ratings of as simple a nature as "A", "N", and "D" become exceedingly effective, not for the purpose of minutely measuring the qualities of an individual but for the purpose of detecting tendencies and permitting remedial measures to be applied to meet those tendencies. A similar study is being made for those who receive "A's" in character to see what effect there was in increasing the "A's" in character above the two that had been received.

Judged in the light of this performance, character rating is worthwhile.

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REPORT:

Term ending June 1938

5 D's	3
4 D's	4
3 D's	10
2 D's	35
	52

Term ending January 1939

5 D's	0
4 D's	0
3 D's	0
2 D's	9
1 D	12
No D's	31
	52

CHARLES A. TONSOR.
Grover Cleveland High School.

THE VOCATIONAL FORUM

The responsibility for guidance has shifted from the parent to the teacher. The average secondary school offers a curriculum rich in exploratory experiences for those who seek a career.

The primary function of the school is to prepare Youth for life's experiences and for participation in a society, which is changing rapidly. To achieve this objective, the pupil must be developed mentally, physically, and socially. Due to the depression in recent years, the want of economic security has hindered the adjustment necessary for welfare of the students in our schools. With the prolongation of schooling, guidance has become imperative.

At Julia Richman High School, the Guidance Office staff, with the coöperation of the home-room teachers, has been successful in engendering self-confidence and initiative in maladjusted pupils; it has directed many of them to prepare for those careers for which they are best qualified.

The Vocational Forum was established to increase the effectiveness of the guidance program. Each of the meetings was held after school hours and was conducted by a guest speaker who was qualified to explain the requisite aptitudes and training for the particular vocation under discussion. Consideration was also given to the problem of employment.

The following careers, of special interest to girls, were selected for discussion at the forums:—nursing, dietetics, library work, applied art, manual arts, broadcasting, dramatics, business, extension college work, and civil service.

Over a hundred students attended the meeting devoted to the consideration of civil service. The scope of the opportunities in the field and the assurance of economic security accounted for the excellent response. Other forums interested twenty to forty students of the Junior, Senior, or special-subject classes. Announcements were made through school newspaper or bulletin as well as through student officers.

The worthwhileness of the project was indicated by the students' pertinent questions at each of the meetings. The Vocational Forum evidently helped the pupils to explore the field of vocations with confidence and understanding. The hesitant and shy individuals, who ordinarily shun the formality of a personal interview, were thus guided. The introduction of adult problems into the schoolroom and discussion of solutions have helped to promote pupil-growth and adjustment.

FRIEDA LICHTMAN.
Julia Richman High School.
February 7, 1939.

PASSING THOUGHTS REGARDING THE TEACHING OF ART APPRECIATION

Art as a subject can lend itself easily to the various types of lesson techniques that are used in other subjects. Yet, in spite of expert handling of these various lesson types, art may still remain a meaningless thing to students. Inasmuch as this subject involves appreciation and enjoyment, it partakes of a slightly different character. It is therefore essential that the teacher possess a knowledge of three fundamental principles necessary in making art a vital subject.

I. The teacher must practice what he preaches.

This has an indirect application in the influence exerted upon pupils, and is more often honored in the breach than in the observance. An art appreciation room should exemplify those tenets of good taste that are being taught. The student, entering a room in which chaos is more apparent than order (as shown by furniture arrangement, placing of accessories and illustrative materials, condition of floor, desks, blackboard) will react adversely, or will feel, subconsciously, ill at ease. The teacher will certainly appear ridiculous to the more thoughtful pupils. The teacher should be scrupulous in his personal attire. I have heard one student say to another, about a teacher, "What can *she* tell me about costume design. She doesn't seem to dress properly herself."

II. The teacher must possess a love for his subject.

It is my belief that true appreciation cannot be taught within the space of a forty-minute period. It can be attained only through constant application on the part of the learner, and steady devotion to the study of the subject. Then why the so-called "appreciation lesson"? The answer is that it may hope to serve at least one important purpose. Enthusiasm is contagious. The learner can feel this in the teacher. The teacher can do little more than arouse a desire for further investigation. But this "little" is a genuine accomplishment. Without it, the appreciation lesson is mostly a vapid recital of worn-out principles accepted for the thou-

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sandth-and-one time by another group of nodding pupils. Of course, appreciation cannot, like other subjects, be measured in objective terms, but rather in terms of self-development.. It is for this very reason that the art teacher's personality must be so strongly molded by his own love and enthusiasm for the subject that it will be a constant source of inspiration to the student after he has left his teacher.

III. The teacher must, himself, be able to create, in the highest sense.

Merely loving the subject is not enough. If the students are motivated, they yearn for manipulation of materials. Now because such a teacher is teaching creative self-expression, he can and will externalize his own creative mental processes into a method which he may impart to his students. Thus the latter, instead of drawing, designing, painting, lettering, modelling, in a wild and haphazard fashion, will think like artists, and produce results that will have some artistic validity. Limiting the student to a method of thinking does not hamper him in his expression, for the most eccentric individuality can express itself freely within any given limitation. In any event, the teacher-creator will arrive at superior results with his students.

MICHAEL ROSS.

Lafayette High School.

"A HISTORY TEACHER COOPERATES WITH THE SCHOOL LIBRARIAN"

It is, too often, all too true that the obvious thing to do is what too many of us don't do. What can be simpler and possibly more effective than the following scheme to get our books off the school library shelves into the hands of our students, where they belong, and kept in practically continuous circulation? As we move through the course of the term's units of history we are naturally aware that it is part of our duty as teachers of the social studies to broaden and deepen our pupils' knowledge, understanding, and appreciation of the past, present, and potential future. It is also evident that we must contribute our mite to the development of a love for worthy reading in historical literature for present and future leisure. It was, therefore, deemed wise to utilize the following simple procedure to get the better historical works of divers types into student hands.

At the beginning of the period, about once a week, several volumes pertinent to the problem at hand are brought, one at a time, to student attention. Brief, very brief, comment is made on the nature of the work, its author, its value. At times it is wise merely to read a significant or arresting paragraph to pique their curiosity or interest, and the book goes to a volunteer. Every teacher knows that routine in introduction is deadening, that variety in method is vital. A record is kept in class by one of the students of the names of students who have received the books distributed together with the authors and titles. Choice is allowed students in the matter of earning extra credit for work done. It is understood that whoever takes a book will at least skim all or part of it. Credit is given only on proof that the book has registered with the pupil. This is evidenced by either an oral or written report rendered at student option. About three minutes before the close of the period the pupils, never more than three at a time, leave the room for the school library to register the books in their names. The consideration of values of the subject of this report is obvious to any one who will take the trouble to take thought.

EUGENE HOROWITZ.

Bushwick High School.

A MEANS OF DISPENSING WITH THE BUNSEN BURNER IN TEACHING BIOLOGY OR GENERAL SCIENCE

When teaching Biology or General Science in a regular recitation room, the teacher is handicapped mostly by the absence of gas for heating, which is necessary in a great number of the classroom demonstrations. The alcohol burner often used is slow and wasteful of time, and is useless for such experiments as the ashing of foods to determine mineral content, or wherever larger amounts of heat are needed.

A simple electrical heating unit has been found to be a satisfactory substitute for the Bunsen Burner in most of the experiments performed in Biology. The heater which can be purchased in hardware or five-and-ten cents stores consists of a coil of resistance wire wound around a conical porcelain form. To support the heater, a porcelain socket equipped with a chain or key switch is fastened to a small block of wood. A wooden box built around the heater to within two inches of the top cuts down the possibility of receiving burns.

The following are illustrations of its use. In testing foods, the test-tube containing Fehling Solution or nitric acid can be placed in the hollow core of the heater and boiling takes place in a few minutes. To prevent the occasional cracking of the test-tube, the outside should be wiped with a piece of paper. In the ashing of foods, the food is placed in a small porcelain crucible which then fits snugly on top of the heater. Here ashing is faster than is obtained by using the Bunsen Burner and there is little danger of the ash being blown away.

When heating alcohol to remove chlorophyll from a leaf, a tripod is placed over the heater and the heater raised by means of blocks of wood until it is directly below the tripod, and the beaker or flask is then placed on the tripod. To prepare oxygen the entire heater

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can be raised and placed so that the test-tube containing the potassium chlorate and manganese dioxide fits inside the cone of the heater.

An advantage of this heater is that it can be turned on or off very easily by means of the switch. Also, when heating a test-tube, the teacher merely places it inside the heater and is free to give his attention to other activities. Finally, the heat given off is spread over a large area and the possibility of cracking test-tubes is reduced.

MORRIS B. ABRAMSON.
Bayside High School.

BUSINESS LETTERS BY THE ENGLISH AND COMMERCIAL DEPARTMENTS

"I am going to give each of you fifty dollars to spend as you please! What will you buy?"

"A typewriter!"

"A bicycle!"

"A radio!"

"A camera!"

"A victrola!" — the class chorused.

After a suitable firm had been suggested for each of the five articles, a series of seven different types of letters between a customer and a store were written in three first term English sections and later typed by upper term students in the Commercial Department. There was no magic in these mystic numbers. Five articles were chosen because there happened to be five rows of seats in the English class; seven types of letters, because there were seven students in a row. The first student in each row started the correspondence by writing a letter of inquiry and by agreeing to let his name be used as the customer's for the entire seven letters in the series. The second student wrote the reply of the firm; the third the customer's order; the fourth, the acknowledgment of the order by the firm; the fifth, a letter of complaint by the customer upon receipt of a defective article; the sixth, a letter of apology from the firm; the seventh, a letter of satisfaction from the customer after a rectification had been made.

Since the entire plan had been suggested by the Chairman of the Department of Secretarial Studies, the English class secured from her files actual copies of letters as a guide for headings, letter closings, and general arrangement. They discovered, for instance, where the representative of the firm wrote his signature in reference to the name of the firm.

Since first termers had been selected by the English Department to write these communications, the initial letters were rarely technically correct, but the idea of perfection in form was held up as a requisite. No letters would be typed by upper termers that were not absolutely without errors. Some of these younger students re-wrote their drafts four or five times, but in the end they had the satisfaction of having completed a perfect piece of work.

The Department of Secretarial Studies typed these letters, returning the carbon copies to the first term students for their permanent files. The commercial club displayed the original typed copies, attractively mounted, on bulletin boards in both the English and Commercial Departments.

LUCETTA HARKNESS.
Bayside High School.

NINE TO THREE

Teaching on the lower east side of New York City affords a study rich in human interest and sociological lore. In my comparatively limited year as a teacher, I laughed, cried, sighed, and was thrilled by the urchins that surround me from nine to three.

It is here in this squalid section of society where I am teaching. It is herein that the boys I teach grovel in veritable hovels with no facilities to wash, no nourishing food to eat, no decent clothing to wear, no comfortable bed to sleep in. They come to school with tattered trousers, soleless shoes, and sleeveless shirts. They arrive at school with ravishing appetites craving food to eat, instead of food for thought. Their skinny, emaciated bodies are thirsty for milk instead of knowledge. Yet one could never notice all these painful facts by cursory observation.

I had to delve into each boy's individual family history. I know the parents of each boy, the brothers and sisters of most of them. I am cognizant of each lad's mental, physical, social and moral makeup. I understand why they dress shabbily and look unkempt. I do not often question their tardiness, their dirty hands, their disheveled hair, their deshabille. How could anyone have the temerity to question these youngsters, the families of eighty-five percent of whom are supported by some welfare agency?

Imagine then the plight of the plaintive pedagogue attempting to inculcate ideals of health, loyalty, honesty, integrity and wholesome character to a group of tired, hungry, underprivileged and underfed lads. It is a difficult, trying task, but the results are often gratifying.

In my innumerable visits to the homes of my charges, I am invariably left with a lump in my throat, and a peculiar sensation in the abdominal region, somewhat akin to nausea. I behold one and two rooms partitioned off with boards. Within each partition are two and three cots and a few battered beds. The rooms are barren of all other appurtenances necessary to a decent and comfortable household.

The kitchens, however, rarely are without a large pot of spaghetti and macaroni boiling over the stove. The women of the homes, always congenial and amiable, usually have me share a plateful of their delicacy, despite my pleas of refusal. I can't always reconcile eating probably another's share. For that is usually the only food awaiting the arrival of the brood for dinner.

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They seem to harbor utmost deference toward their "bambino's maestro." Mrs. Frazzeti once enlightened me on that score when she said, "You know, maestro, my bambino tells me you are like a big brother to him." Some of the parents of my pupils are away all day toiling for paltry remuneration. Mothers leave their offspring on the streets—the gutter and its denizens nurturing them. They are working yet not earning enough to feed, clothe, and care for their cherished ones decently. How can we expect Tony, Jerry and Petey to be attentive, to behave according to our standards, dress in our accepted fashion?

But we are not very exacting in our demands. We help, encourage, and offer succor in every conceivable way within our domain. The pupils are always given an opportunity to partake of free milk and crackers for breakfast, free nutritious lunches, to receive shoes and trousers, to accept fares to and from school. Not always do these deprived, but not depraved youths accept our helping hand. Many have to be cajoled to share our good fortune.

I would be a dolt if I were not touched by these boys. They exist in the dregs and mire of humanity, yet exist to be proud and humane. They never ask or expect anything, yet always proffer to do anything to make my task a little lighter. They seem to exist a hundred miles apart from me, yet they are a part of me.

When my boys experience unusual happenings, home or on the street, they impart that information to me. When Jimmy's sister was married, I was told of the joyous tidings. When Louis worked three successive nights to earn enough to buy a pair of trousers, he advised me he bought trousers the color of mine. When Salvatore sadly related the tragic tale of his younger brother's death, I condoled with him. When Frank's father was seriously injured in an accident while at work, I saddened with him. I live with my pupils and am living myself. Who can deny the feeling of the worthwhileness of life, and thankfulness for being a teacher here when a ragged urchin utters, "Geez teach', you're a regular guy?" I'll never forget the revelation to my wife when an invitation to my class to visit my home was accepted. After listening to sometimes heartrending and sometimes happy tales of these youngsters for a few years, she wondered what manner of humanity she was to receive at our home. What was she to say, how was she to act to these social outcasts, with Great God Paucity as their overseer? Not for long did she wonder, for these heretofore lack - lustre adolescents behaved in a most intelligent, well-mannered, dignified and adult manner. They acknowledged the various greetings in an almost continental fashion. They ate and chatted at our dinner table in a manner comparable to any intelligently adult group.

What a gross anachronism was manifested here. Where did they receive their knowledge and practice of approved social decorum? They seemed to know what to say and when to say it. They ate and used their eating implements in society's accepted fashion. They danced and otherwise entertained in a fine, contained way. Their clothing, not a little worn, was neat and clean. Some even wore frayed but harmoniously blended shirts and ties — their "Sunday clothing."

My wife could not reconcile how this portion of the "other half" could exist as they do, yet react in a social situation as they did. I quickly dispelled her thoughts on them when I informed her of the personality training these boys received at school. Here they are taught the why and wherefore of accepted social behavior—and more, they actually use it.

The basis of my happiness on this job seems to be that I am teaching human beings, not subjects. In this way I can see the fruits of my efforts materialize before my very eyes; and therein lies my joy. For teaching dry, dull subjects year after year makes one a stultified, decaying pedagogue waiting impatiently for his monthly check.

But there must be something more in my ego that could make it possible for me to be compatible with these real, living protagonists of "Dead End"—and there is. For it was here on the lower east side of New York City that I was born and reared. It was here that I struggled the same as these impoverished youths I live with for six hours a day.

I know I have something in common with these boys. I appreciate their deprivations and try to alleviate them in a small way. For they are sometimes happy; always understanding. I have my job to perform and they accept it with unfeigned sincerity. That is why I presume, the problems that confront me are neither new nor startling; but always vivid, vital, and intensely compelling.

SAMUEL TURCHIN.
Metropolitan Vocational
High School.

EDITORIAL NOTES

The author of "The Mimeographed assignment sheet in History" which appeared in March 1939 HIGH POINTS is B. Weisberg of John Adams High School. We regret this omission.

Through an oversight, the name of Lawrence Shapiro, assistant Principal, Elijah D. Clark Junior High School, was omitted from an article entitled *General Mathematics* in *The Junior High School*. Our apologies and regrets to Mr. Shapiro.

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REVIEWS

SECONDARY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

By Edwin J. Brown. Houghton, Mifflin. $2.25.

This is a rather novel approach to administrative problems utilizing the case-problem method of the law course. Administrative theory and principles are teased out of a series of real, practical problems presented in rather sprightly fashion. In each dramatic situation, the issues involved are defined with unusual clarity and precision. But what this volume gains in concreteness and specificity it loses somewhat in fulness of development and straightforwardness of statement. The traditionally dull text on administrative practice had this much at least to recommend: it did get its message across rather completely even if the going was tough most of the way. The novice and the veteran had something to get their teeth into. If they survived or persevered, they had something very tangible to show for their struggles. The intellectual discipline, alone, perhaps, might have made them better administrators. But this book of Dr. Brown's seems like "soft" pedagogy: an attempt to sugar-coat and make pleasant the inevitably pedestrian and commonplace.

In spite of this stricture, we commend this volume to the attention of administrators. If it does not add a cubit to their administrative stature, it may certainly reveal to them a few facts they so often forget or seem never to have learned: administration is not necessarily an end in itself; administration does not concern itself solely with numbers and class registers; administration is basically a problem of making it easier for honest and blundering pedagogues to do, as best they can what their consciences tell them to do, what boards of education insist that they do, and what society and their pupils will not let them do.

A. H. Lass.

PUPIL RATING OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

By R. C. Bryan. Teachers College, Columbia University.

Dr. Bryan set out to discover what seems to us a rather odd tidbit: the validity of pupil ratings of teachers as compared with ratings given the same teachers by administrators and supervisors. We have heard of stranger ventures, 'tis true, but few seem to us basically so addled as this one. The not too startling conclusion that pupils and supervisors do not rate teachers alike would hardly seem to justify a study like this. The recommendation that pupils' ratings of teachers may even tentatively be employed to improve teaching is too fatuous to call for much comment here. This is the kind of learned impertinence that no self-respecting researcher ought ever to be guilty of. That pupils are shrewd and often accurate judges of teacher efficiency we have all discovered (without any elaborate research). That the little devils have an uncanny capacity for ferreting out teacher weaknesses and playing upon them is an equally common part of pedagogical lore. But that students can render an objective opinion on the teacher's sincerity and craftsmanship is in the realm of the purely conjectural. Certainly, no reputable study has yet indicated that pupil judgments are composed of anything but prejudices, hunches, resentments, "crushes," ennui, and sheer cussedness. Make no mistake. We love the hell-raisers we teach (probably more fervently and devotedly than those who, like Dr. Bryan, measure their reactions) and carrying within us, still warm and vibrant, memories of our own school days and our own teachers, we hesitate to attribute the judicial temperament to those who reason as yet with their emotions, to those, who by our own definition, have still to become men and women, to those, who by our own unwilling and saddened confessions, fail, in spite of our instruction, to become what we have envisioned for them.

Maybe Dr. Bryan was just fooling. If so, then this the first example we have encountered of a doctoral ukase delivered tongue in cheek. But we rather suspect that Dr. Bryan's suggestion was offered with the usual sober albeit tentative objectivity. And we stand upon our homespun rights to discard what runs so brazenly counter to experience until it is proved to the hilt.

A. H. L.

THE STUDY HALL IN JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

By Hannah Logasa. Macmillan. $2.00.

This is the first book to devote itself with any degree of thoroughness and intensity to the "organization, equipment, and management of the study hall." It gives new point and meaning to the study hall as an arm of the educational system instead of the incurable administrative headache it so often is.

Miss Logasa's contention (and it is the only tenable one) is that the study hall should do just exactly what its name implies: make study possible under ideal conditions. The study hall should not be a mere congregation of pestilential students supervised into quiescence by a harried, argus-eyed teacher. It should and can be a place where pupils can be guided in the techniques of study, where general skills applicable to all subjects can be taught, where the instruction in the subject class can be made to function in specific context—under skilled and resourceful guidance. And it is just such guid-

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ance that Miss Logasa offers in this slender little volume.

There is enough here on how to study, types of pupil behavior in study halls, techniques and suggestions bringing the library and the study hall into more vital alignment (Miss Logasa's special province), to make the most lethargic of administrators sit up and wonder why he has been diddling around these many years balancing registers and placing Mr. X in charge of study halls (a good disciplinarian, you know, not so strong on pedagogy, but he keeps the boys in line; not a peep out of 'em), when he might just as easily have converted the study hall into an educational experience and Mr. X into a teacher instead of a warden.

Miss Logasa's book will tell him and others how, at least, to make a start in the right direction.

A. H. L.

WERE WE GUINEA PIGS?

By the class of 1938, University High School, Ohio State University. Henry Holt. $2.00.

If all that the publishers claim for this new kind of student yearbook is true, then we are witnessing here one of the most dramatically compelling educational phenomena of our time. The story behind it all runs somewhat as follows. The pupils of the University High School were fed up with the traditionally sentimental, *ave atque vale* kind of yearbook with which we old reactionaries are all familiar and which we all somehow treasure. But these are different times and these pupils were progressively educated and suffering from a sense of almost ineradicable sin. Their yearbook was going to be something different—not only a repository of days of instructional tears and laughter but an *apologia pro vitae suae*. "We'll show 'em," they seem to be saying. "We weren't guinea pigs after all. We had a progressive education, and this is what it has done to us. We'll write a book by ourselves, about ourselves. We'll tell the world what it really means to have been so nurtured and so instructed." And so, say the publishers (very solemnly) "Were We Guinea Pigs?" was born. Out of the mouths of babes we have four years of progressive educational expounded, its results evaluated, its procedures described.

The teachers? They were drawn into it, apparently delighted at this self-initiated project. And what part did they play in it all? Just grammatical and factual guides, it would appear. The rest of the work, the organization and the writing, proof-reading, and so forth, was done entirely by the pupils.

Maybe we are a bit unkind and perhaps grown somewhat acidly skeptical; but the whole job seems a bit too patly phrased to have emanated from the pupils alone. We seem to sense a rather obviously fine Italian hand in it all. The defense is too self-conscious, the professional *patois* too slick. The very nature of the undertaking itself is too mature and too basically critical to be attributable to a group of unguided students, however enthusiastic they may have been about their education. It doesn't seem normal for high school students to embark on so ambitious and so purely pedagogical an undertaking. We doubt, frankly, that within any such high school group, however superior (and this one is certainly superior) there can be found the sustained interest and the technical, philosophical and literary ability to initiate and carry through without any outside suggestions, a venture of such scope and pith. That the progressive schools are producing boys and girls, in some respects superior to the products of the public schools, no one doubts. But that a progressive education makes pedagogues of pupils seems a little hard to swallow. Equally dubious seems the inference that they are fired with a missionary zeal to convert the heathens.

"Maybe we were guinea pigs," the authors conclude, "but our parents and our teachers are still glad we took the chance." So are we for that matter. The book is interesting, whoever is ultimately responsible for it, for its graphic and convincing picture of a progressive school in action. It merits a careful reading by all scoffers. It is a refreshing and illuminating, if not wholly convincing, experience.

A. H. L.

SELECTION OF TEACHERS IN LARGE CITY SCHOOLS

By John Coulbourn. Teachers College, Columbia University. $1.85.

There is no balm in Gilead—not even in Ph.D. theses. We really picked this one up with some alacrity and eagerness, hoping to find, at last, some definitive statement on what to do about it all, on how to get the best teachers without first driving them to the verge of nervous prostration by running them through a perfectly maddening series of selective tests. But Dr. Coulbourn isn't very obliging; perhaps because he has never been put through the ordeal by civil service fire that most of us have experienced. What we do get here is a most distressing picture of honest and sincere but not too effective attempts (thirty-seven of them) to select teaching personnel best qualified to carry the message of civilization to recalcitrant childhood and adolescence. Dr. Coulbourn's criticisms of these attempts is none too pointed and certainly not basic. His work is more a summary of some fairly dismal practices with no very glowing vision of what an ideal system should be like.

We are no indiscriminate sympathizer with every unsuccessful candidate. But certainly one need not necessarily be a flabby humanitarian to recognize that the present

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system of selecting teachers does not always get the best. Too much splendid teaching material is lost, destroyed, permanently discouraged every time a teaching test is held. Those who survive are very often not what the system needs or ought to have. Those who are mowed down by the reckless inaccuracy and arbitrary crudity of the examination are all too often the teachers most needed by the schools. No rational soul can hold an unqualified brief for the present system. It is doing its best. True. But that isn't enough, we submit. Too many tears are shed, too many hearts are wrung in the process—and the result is not invariably worth it all.

To Dr. Coulbourn we looked for a *modus vivendi*, humane and discriminating. We were sadly disappointed. There was an opportunity here to strike into something important to the profession. Dr. Coulbourn has given us precious little other than a calm and objective survey plus some tepid recommendations which do not go very far towards solving our problems.

A. H. L.

BOOK NOTES

(Mention under this head does not preclude review elsewhere.)

ADULT EDUCATION; REPORT OF THE REGENTS' INQUIRY. McGraw-Hill, $2.00.

This report clarifies some of the confusion in present day adult education and formulates a sane and workable program. Points to the need for a permanent, firmly integrated adult education program to keep people abreast of the times. Notes present disorganization, lack of objectives, lack of continuity, sporadic and haphazard instruction. Lists and analyzes special types of adult education activities. Authoritative and thoroughly documented. Nothing wild-eyed about either the findings or the recommendations. In keeping with the generally high tone of the whole work of this inquiry. Other volumes in this series are coming off the press and they promise to be equally as provocative, and as constructively useful as this one.

SPEECH-MAKING, *By John A. Winans.* Appleton-Century, $2.50.

A concrete and interesting treatment of the psychology and techniques of preparing and delivering speeches. Though directed at professional speakers and those seeking careers through speaking, this volume has in it much material that can be useful to English and speech teachers. C. K. Thomas contributes a brief and not too technical chapter on "Voice and Speech."

A. H. L.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF HIGH SCHOOL DISCIPLINE. *By D. H. Garinger.* Teachers College, Columbia University, $1.60.

The rather depressing conclusions of Dr. Garinger are that, to a disquieting degree, high schools are still administering discipline in a most primitive fashion. There is a disheartening lag here between theory and practice. Principals, in the main, seem interested in protecting teachers and the school, rather than the pupil. Guidance is employed sporadically and ineffectively. Disciplinary treatment is focused on symptoms, not causes.

A sound and long-needed study in a really important matter.

THE PRONUNCIATION OF VOWEL SOUNDS; AN EVALUATION OF PRACTICE MATERIAL FOR COLLEGE FRESHMEN. *By E. G. Kuhn.* Teachers College, Columbia, $1.60.

Describes a controlled experiment to discover the type of practice material most influential in bringing about desired change in the pronunciation of five vowel sounds. Electrical recordings of the students were made before and after the instruction material was tried out. Four trained judges did the ratings. A very thorough hoeing of a very small row, indeed. But Ph.D.'s must live. For speech people only, although others, too, may want to take a brief and puzzled look into this subatomic world of laryngeal calisthenics.

A HANDBOOK TO DRAMA. *By F. H. O'Hara and M. H. Bro. Willett.* Clark, $2.00.

A very ambitious but not entirely successful attempt to give the reader all he ought to know about the essentials of drama, dramatic types, dramatic structure and technique, and the history of the drama. All this in less than two hundred and fifty pages. There is also a rather full dictionary of terms used in playwrighting and production.

Of course, there is nothing final or definitive about this text, the authors are quick to admit. It is just an apéritif to whet the prospective students' blunted appetite. Be that as it may, this volume exhibits all the faults of the universal tool; it does everything passably but nothing superlatively well. It produces in the unwary and immature reader an illusory omniscience, even though this is not its primary intent.

SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT OF HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS. *By Lester Kirkendall.* Teachers College, Columbia.

Concludes rather tritely that home environment influences pupil adjustment, that adjustment is a complex matter, and that school and home must coöperate to help the adolescent over his difficult period. Rather frail and attenuated stuff. Nothing here that can't be found in every wisely run school. If it means anything, here is statistical confirmation for some universally recognized practices.

GUIDING HUMAN MISFITS; A PRACTICAL APPLICATION OF INDIVIDUAL PSYCHOLOGY. *By Alexandra Adler.* Macmillan. $1.75.

This is a small but valuable contribution to our understanding of the problem child. Dr. Adler is the daughter of Alfred Adler and her interpretations stem from his doctrines upon which they rely very heavily. She treats very pointedly of such matters as the crucial nature of childhood experiences, neuroses in childhood, problems of adolescence, psychology of the criminal, significance of dreams, and some practical aspects of child guidance and psychotherapy. Alfred Adler's questionnaire (and a very searching one it is) for the understanding and treatment of problem children concludes the volume.

Those who have not steeped themselves in the works of Adler père will be troubled by the many lacunae in his daughter's slight but penetrating essays. Educational counsellors and deans will find this a helpful guide.

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REDIRECTING TEACHER EDUCATION. *By G. Watson, D. P. Cottrell, E. M. Lloyd-Jones.* Teachers College, Columbia.

A bold, frontal attack on present inadequacies in teacher-training by those who know what it is all about and who are not particularly pleased with what they see about them. Present training, the authors find, is too narrow, too specialized, too haphazard. They deplore the lack of professional spirit and impetus necessary for wider and deeper development of teacher skill and personality.

Specific recommendations are made in such areas as criteria for selecting teachers, guidance of professional students, standards of achievements needed for a broader general and professional education.

If teacher-training institutions follow some of these suggestions, we ought to get a new generation of fuller, more alert teachers.

SOCIAL LEARNING. *By Donnal V. Smith.* Chas. Scribner's Sons.

Offers a guide to a social studies curriculum growing out of the author's experimentation in up-state schools. A re-statement of the purpose and function of social learning in a democracy.

A brief treatise on the nature of democratic society and the individual is followed by a statement of the frame of reference in which typical social studies units may be fitted.

The whole treatment is rather sketchy but it offers provocative leads for fresh and meaningful organization of subject matter.

THOSE WHO INFLUENCE AND THOSE WHO ARE INFLUENCED IN DISCUSSION. *By R. H. Simpson.* Teachers College, Columbia.

A highly provocative study of those traits and influences which render individuals susceptible to suasion moral and rhetorical. Only 185 college women surveyed. This small number limits the usefulness and applicability of the study but does not destroy its basic validity as here established.

Among the interesting findings are these. The most influential in discussion tend to get the highest grades. The radical is inclined to be more persuasive than the conservative. The most persuasive, startlingly enough, tend to be virtually immune to doctrines hostile to or in disagreement with their convictions.

An experiment well worth repeating under more varied conditions, with larger and more heterogeneous groups. Dr. Simpson has something important here. Educators cannot afford to miss its implications.

THE GENESIS OF POOR READING. *By C. C. Bennett.* Teachers College, Columbia. $1.00.

A discussion of etiological factors associated with poor reading: I. Q., sex, physical, visual, and auditory disabilities, home, and cultural background, reading experience, and so forth. Reading is here envisioned as the child's reaction to the totality of his experience. Nothing startling in these findings. Nothing radically new. Good, honest, but not very inspired spade-work.

DIRECTING LEARNING THROUGH CLASS MANAGEMENT. *By Willard F. Tidyman.* Farrar and Rinehart, $2.50.

A sensible, workmanlike manual in general class procedures and techniques. It covers such matters as class environment, behavior problems, records, marking, planning and executing the curriculum, selection and use of instructional materials. The sections on class administration, group and individual instruction and the summarizing the main trends in ability and special grouping are especially effective.

In all, this text is as good as many, better than some, but not an outstanding brilliant job in any sense. It is good, just good.

A. H. L.

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nyc Education, Board of
Principal liability

LIABILITY FOR SCHOOL ACCIDENTS

There are many who think that the recent case of *Thompson* v. *Board of Education and Burger*[1] establishes a startlingly new principle of law and that it once for all frees the classroom teacher and the principal of liability for negligence. Nothing could be further from the truth; and it is the purpose of this non-technical article to elucidate briefly the general doctrines concerning liability for accidents occurring in schools.

Where an accident occurs in school, due to negligence, suit may be brought against one or all of three different defendants: the Board of Education as a corporate entity, its individual members, or the teacher and the principal.

I. SCHOOL BOARD LIABILITY: COMMON-LAW RULE

The predominant principle of law is that *in the performance of a governmental function, the state, or any of its agencies, is immune from liability for either its own or its employees' negligence, unless it consents to such liability.* Therefore, a Board of Education is not liable for injuries resulting from either its own or its employees' negligence.

[1] 280 N. Y. 92, February 28, 1939.

What is the genesis of a rule in effect permitting the Board of Education to commit homicide? It is a principle of law springing out of the medieval theory of the divine right of kings: "A King can do no wrong." Kings fell out of favor, but the sovereign states took over the prerogatives of the king: the state could do no wrong. Hence, suit cannot be brought for what is not a wrongful act. This is the main theory upon which the governmental immunity rule is based.

Another more recent theory is the "no-fund" doctrine, that there are no funds to pay judgments against the Board of Education, since all of its monies are in trust solely for educational purposes. On its face this theory has a certain justification. It is argued that to grant judgments against the Board of Education in cases such as the recent terrible Utah bus tragedy or the Texas central school gas explosion would result in the closing of schools, especially in small and poor school districts.

The theory of governmental immunity, followed in forty-five states, has long-since been abandoned in England, its birthplace.

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Statutory Rules

The common-law rule holds that governmental immunity exists "unless the state consents" to liability. Two states have consented. A Washington statute allows suit against the Board of Education both for its own and its employees' negligence. An epidemic of cases occurred and another statute was passed excluding liability for injuries resulting from playground, athletic or manual training accidents. California, by statute, likewise abrogated the predominant rule and put the school district practically on a level with a private corporation.

New York Rule

New York has adopted an intermediate and unique position. Without the aid of statute, and purely by judicial decision, New York established the rule that *a Board of Education is liable for its own negligence, but not for the negligence of its employees.* The question then arises: when is the board of education liable itself? When is the negligence that of the school corporation, rather than that of any of its employees?

The courts answer this question in terms of the duties imposed upon the board. Certain duties are imposed by statute upon the Board of Education itself and these are non-delegable. For the negligent performance of these the board is liable. Other duties are delegable, for the negligent performance of which the board is not liable.

The main *delegable* duty is that of instruction. The board does not itself instruct; its duty is to appoint teachers for instruction. Having appointed teachers, "its duty is then performed." This means that the teacher is an independent contractor and, as in all agency law, while a master is liable for the negligence of his servant, he is not liable for negligence of an independent contractor. Since a teacher is an independent contractor (the duty of instruction being a delegable one) injuries caused during instruction are not attributable in damages to the Board of Education. This is not the board's own negligence.

Non-delegable duties — which entail liability—are those imposed by statute upon the Board of Education. They are of three kinds:

(1) *The Management of Property.* The duty to maintain and repair its property is a basic duty of the board. There are two types of cases involving negligence in the management of its property. The first is that of *unsafe premises.* It is basic that the Board of Education must provide safe premises for all those who come for and render instruction. So, where injury resulted because a ceiling fell down or a school flagpole fell, or where an elevator was in improper condition, the Board of Education was held liable. Another basic requirement upon the Board of Education is the provision of *safe equipment.* Where injury results through defective play slides or through inadequate and unsafe gymnasium equipment, the Board of Education is liable. For example, where the board supplied a bat without a knob on the end and a child swung the bat and hit another pupil, the court held that this was unsafe equipment.

The distinction between safe equipment improperly used, and unsafe equipment, is again the distinction between delegable and non-delegable duties. For example, when a Board of Education, in one of its manual training classes, provided a buzz-saw without a guard, the court held that the board had failed in its non-delegable duty because it provided unsafe equipment. However, when the board provided the guard, but the student was injured because the teacher failed to require him to use it, the Board of Education was not liable since it had complied with its non-delegable duty of providing safe equipment. That the safe equipment had been improperly used was the fault of the teacher, and since instruction was a delegable duty, the Board of Education was not liable.

In short, the obligation to maintain its property is essentially one requiring the board to provide safe premises and equipment.

(2) *Selection of Personnel.* The second basic non-delegable duty refers to the selection of proper personnel. While instruction is a delegable duty, the Board of Education itself must select proper people to provide instruction. Having done so, it is not liable for negligence committed by those it selects. A case in point illustrates the doctrine. Where a Board of Education required its pupils to stay in the gymnasium during the lunch hour with no supervisor other than a janitor, the board was held liable for an injury that occurred because it had failed in its duty to provide a suitable person to supervise the children. The Board of Education alone is empowered to choose its personnel and, therefore, it cannot delegate this duty.

(3) *Supervision.* A board must provide sufficient, as well as proper personnel. However, its duty is only to provide *general supervision.* A board is not required to provide supervision for each playground swing, for example: so long as it has supplied general supervision through competent personnel, it fully complies with this duty.

Must the board *always* provide supervision? Here is a growing field in the law where no unalterable rules can be set down. The cases seem to indicate, however,

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that where the Board of Education requires compulsory attendance, it must provide supervision. It need not provide supervision where it forbids, has no reason to expect, or merely permits but does not compel attendance; so long as there are no defective premises or equipment, the Board of Education is not liable.

"Save Harmless" Statute

In 1937 the New York Legislature passed a statute providing that a Board of Education

> shall be liable for, and shall assume liability to the extent that it shall save harmless any duly appointed member of the teaching or supervising staff, officer or employee of such board for damages arising out of the negligence of any such appointed member, officer or employee . . . provided (such person) at the time damages were sustained was acting in a discharge of duty and within the scope of his employment. (Education Law No. 881-a.)

Aside from the constitutionality of the statute, there are certain obvious shortcomings. First, so far as it applies to New York City, it covers only "duly appointed" teachers, whereas Section 569-a of the Education Law, the companion statute applying to all other boards of education in New York State, covers "all teachers." What of the substitute or evening school teacher, or anyone other than a "duly appointed member"? Suppose someone is appointed to one division, but assigned by action of the Superintendent of Schools, to another. Does he come within the statute?

Furthermore, the statute covers acts only "within the scope of employment." Does this mean that all extra-curricular activities must be specifically authorized by the Board of Education to come within the purvue of the statute? Very soon after this statute was adopted the town of Hempstead in Nassau County passed resolutions specifically approving activities such as cake sales, ping-pong, shuffle board and scholastic clubs. In New Jersey, which has a substantially identical statute, many boards of education are constantly passing resolutions similarly approving specific activities. Furthermore, the statute applicable to New York City alone, does not specifically permit the board to purchase liability insurance, whereas that applicable to the rest of the state does allow the board to take out insurance.

So far as can be determined at the present moment, the effect of this 1937 statute is not as yet perfectly clear.

Critique of the New York Rule

Apart from complete abrogation of the common-law rule by statute, the New York rule, so far as it goes, is by far the best. However, in its restricted form it is in a degree arbitrary. First, according to the old common-law rule, a king could do no harm. In opposite terms, the New York rule states that the king *can* do harm, but not his servants; that is, the king can be liable for his own negligence but not for his servants'. Furthermore, the common-law rule said that a school district was not liable for the negligence of any of its agents, but in New York the school district *is* liable for the negligence of only one of its agents, the Board of Education—a rather illogical distinction.

Of course, it may well be that the "save harmless" statute will cut across the entire field and totally abrogate the effect of the common-law rule in New York so far as it is applicable.

II. PERSONAL LIABILITY OF SCHOOL OFFICIALS

It will not be necessary to spend much time upon the personal liability of school board members. The question arises generally in suit against board members for excluding pupils from school for the disobedience of board rules. Occasionally the matter arises in a suit against a board member for the dismissal of a teacher. The general rule is that a board member is personally liable only for negligent performance of a ministerial duty. A ministerial duty is contrasted with a discretionary act, involving the exercise of judgment; and in the exercise of such judgement the board member is not liable, so long as he acts in good faith. The obvious purpose of this rule was to induce laymen to render gratuitous service as board members by offering them some guaranty of immunity in the performance of their duties.

III. PERSONAL LIABILITY OF TEACHERS, PRINCIPALS AND SUPERINTENDENTS

One is always liable for his *own* negligence. A teacher (and in the law "teacher" includes "principal" and "superintendent") has special immunities from liability in punishment and libel cases, but apart from this is no different from any other person and is always liable for his own negligence. While the common-law rule exempts a Board of Education from liability for the negligence of its employees, it does not follow that the employees themselves are not liable for their own negligence. Since boards of education are not liable for their negligence, suits against teachers are likely to grow in number as time goes on.

What situations present teachers with possibilities for liability?

(1) *Rules and Regulations.* It is to be remembered that the teacher, being *in loco parentis*, has the power and the duty to prescribe and enforce certain rules of conduct. Throughout the country certain rules have been established, as, for example, banning the use of

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lipstick and high heels in class, requiring that students stay home between five and seven to complete their homework, etc. The issue in such cases generally arises because the teacher expels pupils disobeying the rule. The crucial question before the court is: was the rule a reasonable one? And this means: did it have a justifiable aim, and did the rule have such substantial connection with its justifiable aim as to be reasonable?

(2) *Corporal Punishment.* It is to be remembered that, with the exception of New Jersey, all the states in the United States permit corporal punishment. New York City bans it through by-laws. The only question in such cases is: was the punishment moderate and reasonable under the circumstances, or was it excessive, vindictive, and malicious?

(3) *Expulsion.* The general issue is: was the expulsion warranted? Recently the Court of Appeals held that an expulsion for failure to salute a flag was warranted.

(4) *Detention of Pupils after Class.* There is no liability upon the teacher if the motives and the means were proper.

(5) *General Performance of Duty.* A teacher is liable if a jury finds that in the performance of her duties she failed to act as a reasonably prudent person would have acted under the circumstances, or, in other words, if she acted negligently. Recently there has developed a group of cases in which liability may arise on teachers or principals under the duty of supervision. What supervision must a principal provide for so as to escape liability? The Court of Appeals has recently held that the principal is required only to provide general supervision.[2]

In a word, people are becoming increasingly aware of the liability of school teachers for negligence. It is to be expected that there will be more and more cases being brought against teachers, principals, and superintendents to recover damages for injuries suffered through negligence.

ILLUSTRATIONS

The cases, while not many, show very clear indications that this tendency has already started.

A. *Cases Where Teacher is Personally Sued.*

In *Thompson v. Burger,* the Board of Education, the teacher and the principal were sued, and it was not until the highest court rendered its decision that the principal was absolved of all liability.

In 1922 the New York court rendered a judgment against both the Board of Education and the Superintendent of Schools where a child was injured by an unguarded buzz-saw.

In an early English case, a teacher was held liable for burns received by a pupil through lighting phosphorous left accessible in a laboratory.

In a recent California case, the teacher alone was held liable for allowing a pupil to use an old dangerous automobile.

B. *Cases Where the Board of Education Alone was Sued, but the Teacher was Suable.*

(1) *Where the Board of Education Lost* (and, therefore, no incentive was present to press further suit):

In a recent New York case, a slide fell over a kindergarten pupil during class. The teacher had noticed that the slide was unsecured about three-quarters of an hour before the accident occurred. The teacher would have been subject to suit for damages for negligently permitting the slide to have remained unsecured and for permitting its use.

In a very recent California case, a pupil was injured in a tumbling exercise. Judgment was rendered against the San Francisco School District on the ground that the teacher failed to differentiate the pupils who were capable of performing such an exercise.

In a recent New York case, decided only a short while ago, the Appellate Division held that a headstand was an improper exercise. Under this ruling a teacher permitting such exercise could be held personally liable for negligence.

In another California case, recovery was permitted against the school district because the teacher had negligently permitted a student to mix gun-powder in accordance with instructions in a chemical lab book, without giving specific oral instructions. The teacher could have been sued for negligence under the terms of this court's decision.

(2) *Where the Board of Education Won* (and, therefore, the pupil is likely to want to sue the teacher).

In three relatively recent cases the court denied judgments against the Board of Education on the specific grounds that the Board of Education was not liable, but that the teachers were. In one case, the teacher negligently failed to secure a portable basketball backstop. In another, the teacher so negligently controlled a dismissal as to permit injuries from a broken transom. In still another case, the teacher negligently permitted a student to use a buzz-saw without a guard. In all these three cases, under the terms of the decision, the teacher was negligent and the injured pupil could have recovered a judgment personally against the teacher.

IV. POLICY

What is the basic philosophy underlying the social legislation so

[2] *Thompson v. Burger, supra* n. 1. It is to be noted that in this respect the duty of supervision imposed upon the principal is decided in terms identical with that imposed upon the Board of Education itself.

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characteristic of the twentieth century? Its fundamental purpose is to spread the burden of unavoidable risks over a wide base so that no one individual shall be compelled to bear the whole brunt of a calamity. Workmen's compensation proceeds on the theory that there are certain unavoidable industrial risks and that, therefore, the risk should be spread over the entire industry by insurance. The old age and social security legislation is motivated by the philosophy that the very process of living causes certain unavoidable social risks, and that rather than permit unprovided-for old age and unprovided-for unemployment, the community had better arrive at some means of spreading the risks involved in life.

Why, then, must unavoidable injuries in the largest public business—the schools—be visited upon the individual unfortunate sufferer? Why cannot the same basic philosophy of spreading the risk be applied? It is not a question of "soak-the-Board-of-Education;"—no more so than with workmen's compensation or social security. Rather, the question is: in which way is society likely to be better served, by having the individual crippled child go through life crippled, unprovided for, and uncared for, or by having society at large, through taxation, pay for injuries which admittedly are unavoidable?

It seems to the writer that the predominant common-law theory of letting the risk lie where it falls is little short of barbarous. As one of the courts has said, it was not the intention of the people to establish irresponsible juggernauts when they established the school system.

But, it will be said, what of the theories justifying the common-law doctrine of governmental immunity? Let us consider these theories. First, the theory of sovereign immunity in the performance of a governmental function: New York abandoned it without statute; England abandoned it without statute; Washington and California abandoned it with statute; and on the continent, where one is told there are some fairly substantial sovereignties still existing, the rule basically was never followed. Can it be said that these various states and countries have lost any of their sovereign attributes because they have consented to being sued?

The more recent doctrine is the so-called "no fund" theory that all funds are in trust for education and cannot be applied elsewhere, or otherwise the system would be ruined. In the states where this theory is not applied, the school systems have not been ruined. New York, for example, specifically abandoned it. A recent case said:

> We fully appreciate the far-reaching effects which (this) principle . . . may have in the matter of expense of rural education . . . but we deem the protection of small, helpless children from avoidable injury of still greater importance.

Another recent interesting development has occurred in Tennessee, where this "no fund" theory was pressed upon the courts in two cases where the boards carried liability insurance. The court said that in such cases the "no fund" theory was inapplicable at least to the amount of the insurance provided; that is, that the pupil injured could recover against the school system up to the amount of the insurance. This is an indication that the "no fund" theory is really no theory at all, but rather a fear on the part of courts because even in the Tennessee cases the "no fund" theory could have been applied to prohibit the payment of insurance premiums to purchase this liability insurance. If there are no funds to pay judgments, obviously there should be no funds for insurance premiums to obtain policies covering judgments.

FORECAST

Perhaps the insurance device is the way out. It is to be noted that California, New York, and New Jersey specifically provide by statute that boards may obtain liability insurance. Conceivably the Tennessee approach of setting aside the common-law rule where there is insurance will be followed in a greater number of cases as the years go by.

However, one has doubts about this. These matters come before courts, and courts generally are dominated in their thinking by common-law concepts. Minnesota and Oregon unsuccessfully attempted to abrogate the common-law by statute, but judicial interpretation balked such legislative attempts by resort to the common-law rules. Even in New York, where the courts took the grave judicial step of abrogating the common-law, it was only a partial move; and in Tennessee the steps away from the common-law were very hesitant and the rule of governmental immunity still applies in the degree to which the boards of education are not insured.

It seems, therefore, that legislation is the only remedy. The recent "save harmless" statute in New York covers part of the situation but not all. In the author's opinion, the common-law rule is inhumane and ought to be abolished as inconsistent with the general social philosophy that an individual should not be made to bear the brunt of socially unavoidable injuries. Furthermore, to the degree that the Board of Education is not liable for injuries resulting from negligence, teachers are likely to be held personally responsible. Therefore, not only from the point of view of general basic social philosophy, but from the point of view of self-protection, teachers should see to it that the general common-law throughout the country on this

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issue be abrogated by statutes permitting suit against boards of education for injuries resulting from negligence, either of the board or of its employees.

HARRY N. ROSENFIELD.
Board of Education
City of New York.

WHAT THE SCHOOLS ARE DOING TO FURTHER INTELLECTUAL FREEDOM AND DEMOCRACY*

If Superintendent Campbell were here, I am certain that he would give expression to the deep conviction which he holds, that democracy, with all its faults, is the best form of government the world has ever known; that it is the only social arrangement whereby man can find the free development of his intellect and his personality.

I must, of course, take full personal responsibility for such elaboration of his theme as I can offer, but I cannot possibly avoid the obligation which Dr. Campbell has constantly placed upon all of us who work in the schools, to respect the individual pupil and to uphold the Bill of Rights.

There are two interpretations which may be given to the vast amount of public discussion now in progress, dealing with the threat to intellectual freedom and democracy. The first derives from a feeling of fear and panic, a tendency toward appeasement and compromise, an ostrich-like delusion that we can shut ourselves away from something unpleasant. From such a point of view, meetings like this would be regarded as a symptom of pessimism for the future, a "whistling in the dark" to hide the terror in our hearts. The second interpretation of this verbal excitement is more encouraging and optimistic. It is derived from the belief that words can lead to action, well-considered, reasonable action, action based upon a complete understanding of the nature of the world situation and of the sad consequences to liberty if nothing is done.

As teachers, we leave to others those spheres of action which involve the use of economics and politics. Quite naturally, we turn to education. Taking a leaf from the book of dictatorships, we look first to our schools. In a very real sense, we have nothing to fear, just as long as teaching and learning are kept free.

The difficulty which faces us, however, is that we are prone to take freedom of teaching for granted. Despite much that has been said to the contrary, we possess a great deal of freedom, but we do not use it in the interest of democracy. Most of us are so concerned with minutiae of subject matter that we shut ourselves off from the things that really count. Our courses of study for adolescent boys and girls are loaded with facts and information, subject upon subject, each in an air-tight compartment. Some of us are busy giving pupils the elements of algebraic manipulation; others are delving into ancient history; still others are struggling with foreign languages. While this is going on, the press, the radio and the motion picture are fashioning the young mind in a hit or miss fashion. Youth becomes game for propaganda of all kinds.

The turn of events in recent years has brought most of us in the schools to the realization that the materials and methods of teaching must be reorganized. A good deal of the traditional content will need to be discarded. Above all, the interrelationships among subjects must be developed, and the whole infused with vital experiences arising from real life problems.

Among the first of the changes to be noted is the growing importance of the natural science studies. A few months ago, the Board of Education adopted a new course in science. For the first time in the history of our schools, we have a program in science education which begins in the early grades and extends through the high schools. For the first time, provision has been made for the leisurely teaching of the big ideas of science and for the sequential and cumulative learning from grade to grade. Something of the spirit of the course can be gleaned by quoting briefly from its Introduction:

> Through the study of science, we seek to develop open-mindedness. Even when a definite conclusion has been reached, it must be considered tentative, subject to modification in the light of new facts or evidence. Pupils are given opportunity to examine prejudices and superstitions of all kinds and to disprove erroneous beliefs.

Again the new science course brings home to teachers and pupils, the crisis in world affairs when it says:

> The essential morality of peace and the horror and wastefulness of warfare must be brought before the pupil. The international nature of science must be made clear. Reference to scientific implements of war should be made in connection with such topics as the influence of war in causing epidemic diseases and in perverting the achievements of scientists to serve the forces of destruction.

Another manifestation of democracy through more and better science teaching is to be found in the changing nature of laboratory work. Much of the cook-book variety of laboratory experiment is

*Address delivered by Dr. Morris Meister, Principal of the High School of Science, at the luncheon of the New York City Committee, held at the Columbia University Faculty Club, Monday, January 23, 1939.

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being eliminated. Less stress is placed upon obtaining data to prove laws which the pupil already knows to be true. More importance is attached to the laboratory as a place where one puts questions to nature, where one gathers evidence in search of truth and where one records faithfully and objectively such facts as are observed. A generation of boys and girls reared in such an atmosphere is the best insurance we can procure for the preservation of democracy against the Hitlers of the world.

The most significant development in our schools toward the democratic way of life is the recent establishment of a High School of Science. The purpose here, is to provide a general secondary education in which the natural sciences become the care of the curriculum. The pupils are selected for their interest and aptitude in the scientific fields. Their studies include the social studies, mathematics, English and the other well known areas of high school education; but an attempt is made to relate them all to science as a nucleus.

The method of the scientist as exemplified in laboratory research is applied in the Civics class at this high school when pupils study the process of molding public opinion, and in the English class when they read the daily newspaper. Studies of heredity in the Biology class are related to race theories, and to race contributions as they arise in the work of the History class. It is not necessary in this school to argue: "Who invented the radio, Herz the German Jew, Maxwell the Englishman, Marconi the Italian, or deForrest the American?" Pupils are the first to recognize and point out that all of these men borrowed from the work of those that preceded them. Each of them made worthy contributions. In studying the telephone, the mechanical and electrical details in the device become incidental to the main theme; which is the forging of an instrument for communication that brings human beings nearer one another and more dependent upon each other.

Several weeks ago, the pupils of the High School of Science addressed a letter of greeting to each of the ambassadors of the Pan-American countries participating in the Congress at Lima:

> It is our sincere hope (they said) that the cordial relations which have existed between the peoples of both our countries will continue to grow; that amongst us all there will remain an abiding faith in democratic government, and that we shall continue to dedicate ourselves to the preservation of the ideals of mutual understanding, liberty, tolerance and peace, to the end that we may keep ablaze the torch of civilized living.

Thirteen of the countries returned cordial replies. It becomes increasingly clear that science-mindedness breeds world-mindedness; that the spirit of science is the essence of tolerance. In the study of science, pupils of this high school are rediscovering the ideals of American democracy — the ideals to which Jefferson and Lincoln devoted their lives.

At a meeting of the Board of Education on December 14th the following resolution was adopted:

Whereas, there is manifest the great need to build conscious barriers against conditions destructive to democracy, and to renew and reaffirm our faith in American democracy, therefore be it

RESOLVED: That in every public school in the City of New York, assemblies be devoted to the promulgation of American ideals of democracy, tolerance and freedom for all men; that these assemblies be devoted to making the children of the nation aware of the contributions of all races and nationalities to the growth and development of American democracy; that the programs for all these assemblies be based on the social and political history of the United States, and that these programs present the contributions of all races and nationalities in a way such as to develop esteem, respect, good will and tolerance among students and teachers in all the schools.

In consonance with this resolution, Dr. Campbell has asked each school to hold two such assemblies each month. If this seems somewhat extreme, let us bear in mind that our most valuable social heritage has never been threatened as it is today. We must provide antidotes against propaganda from those who deride reason as a worthy attribute of mankind. We need defense against democracy's cynical friends who ask if self-government is ever more than make-believe, if there is wisdom in mass voting, if there is justice in majorities and who suggest that perhaps might does make right.

We have reached a point when we must cease being tolerant of intolerance. We must become propagandists for democracy. Our courses of study and our methods of teaching should aim to make pupils *prefer* the democratic way of life. Pupils will learn to hate war because war is bad science; they will grow more tolerant because prejudice is unscientific; they will demand self-government because it is a scientific truth that tyranny degrades, enslaves, and ultimately kills mankind.

MORRIS MEISTER.
Bronx High School of Science.

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PROPAGANDA FOR PRESERVATION

Perhaps never before has it seemed so necessary that teachers keep faith with Society by preparing young people intellectually and emotionally to assume their full share of responsibility in preserving the ideals of modern civilization. Small wonder that educators are bewildered in planning courses of study and modifications or adjustments in curricula, when we consider that even studies have no immunity to the menacing disease of propaganda, reaching dangerous proportions, threatening to destroy even before it can be scientifically diagnosed to say nothing of being adequately treated and cured. Yes, we are frankly menaced by propagandas.

Ours is a world in which whole continents war, though no war is declared; where science is made unscientific by human fiat, and men fear to live almost more than to die, if they have been so careless as to select the wrong race, color, or creed to cradle them. Nor is the ostrich attitude any safer than it ever was for the teacher. For the pace of our machine age, the speed and accuracy with which ideas strike from inconceivably remote quarters like bombs from flying arsenals, allow too little time to build mental shelters when the enemy is sighted, even if such action were expedient. As we conceive it, it is our task to prepare American youth to find its way safely through the maze of pressure groups and exciting ideologies, not to a haven for lazy minds—the Dictator Way—but to a world ever more alluring because it recognizes increasingly the sacredness of human personality.

Just because we are so conscious of the need to preserve the ideals of democracy and our Republic, itself, however imperfect at present, the techniques of propaganda analysis as being presented for our use by the Institute for Propaganda Analysis have realistic appeal. When propagandas are analyzed—every teacher can be an effective analyst, whatever his subject—we need have little fear for the Republic. It is tragically ironical that the dictator-ridden peoples of Italy, Germany, and Russia owe their present plight to their inability to recognize propagandas until they, themselves, were too far victimized by them to make analysis safe, if possible at all.

A non-profit making institution under unimpeachable educational leadership, the Institute for Propaganda Analysis[1] offers to teachers everywhere through its publications and counselling service just the kind of guidance required to teach techniques of propaganda analysis, the way of propagandists, and the forces and powers which motivate their existence and objectives.

As defined by the Institute for Propaganda Analysis, "propaganda is expression of opinion or action by individuals or groups deliberately designed to influence opinions or actions of other individuals or groups with reference to predetermined ends." "Thus, propaganda differs from scientific analysis. The Propagandist is trying to 'put something across,' good or bad, whereas the scientist is trying to discover truth and fact. Often the propagandist does not want careful scrutiny and criticism; he wants to bring about a specific action. Because the action may be socially beneficial or socially harmful to millions of people, it is necessary to focus upon the propagandist and his activities the searchlight of scientific scrutiny. Socially desirable propaganda will not suffer from such examination, but the opposite type will be detected and revealed for what it is."[2]

As we know too well in this day of barbarisms and wanton trampling upon the cultures and ideals of races and religions when they are convenient victims to precede a tyrant's victory, propagandas are highly charged with emotion, prejudice, and bitterness. Whether it be a Christian ministry crying out against the demoniac attacks and destruction of its church, the Bund leader shouting with raised fist his hatred of religious minority groups, or a political demagogue proclaiming the end of ignominy for treaty-victimized nationals and announcing his seizure of another place in the Sun, we see people making "a virtue of defending their own opinions or propagandas."

As the Institute writers point out, "many would deal with opinions or propagandas they don't like by suppressing them, by violence, if need be. But suppression of unpopular opinions or propagandas is contrary to democratic conceptions of government. A heresy or an unpopular propaganda or opinion may be bad, or good. One way to find out is by analysis and classification according to types and interests. For to deal with propaganda by suppression through federal legislation would violate the Constitution of the United States. 'Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.' These freedoms are the essence of democracy. In terms of them, the Institute will subject

[1] Institute for Propaganda Analysis, 132 Morningside Drive, New York City. Officers: President, E. C. Lindeman, New York School of Social Work; Vice-President, Kirtley Mather, Harvard University; Secretary, Clyde R. Miller, Teachers College, Columbia University; Treasurer, Ned R. Dearborn, New York University. In addition, there is a large advisory board of educational specialists. Miss Violet Edwards is Educational Director.

[2] *Propaganda Analysis*, Vol. I.

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propagandas to scientific analysis and seek to indicate whether they conform or not to American principles of democracy."

Once we accept the logic and safe reasonableness of such an educational procedure, it will be clear at once why the classroom teacher, whatever his subject, can ill afford to miss these new viewpoints and guides to his teaching. Particularly does it seem important that studies in propaganda analysis be taught in the classrooms of the public schools for who, if not the public school teachers can be depended upon to teach ideas and techniques that will forever keep our schools free and public?

Propaganda may be recognized more easily if the teacher can, at the outset of his lessons in analysis, familiarize students with the seven common propaganda devices. These are: *The Name Calling Device, The Glittering Generalities Device, The Transfer Device, The Testimonial Device, The Plain Folks Device, The Card Stacking Device,* and *The Band Wagon Device.*[3]

In *Name Calling,* the propagandist tries to make us form a judgment without examining the evidence on which it is based. He appeals to our hates and fears, giving bad names to individuals, groups, nations, races, policies, practises, beliefs, and ideals which he would have us condemn and reject. Students of history thus are made to understand the effectiveness of *heretic* and *Tory,* even as modern social science studies must account for *Fascist, Communist, Red, alien,* and dozens of other inventions befogging social and political issues of significance to all people.

When he employs the *Glittering Generalities Device,* the propagandist appeals by using *virtue words.* Words and phrases like *truth, freedom, honor, liberty, social justice, public service, the right to work, loyalty, democracy, the American Way,* suggest only good and ideal ends. Since all persons of good will accept these ideals, when the propagandist identifies his special objective: nation, race, policy, or practise with this accepted ideal, he plans to win approval by getting us to form a judgment to reject and condemn without examining the evidence.

Using the *Transfer Device,* the authority, sanction, or prestige of something we respect and revere, is transferred to the propagandist's objective. It is used for and against ideas with ease and subtlety. It is not difficult to teach Nazi youth to revere and even deify Hitler when prayers in solemn church phraseology addressed to him are published and taught to all German youth by Baldur von Schirach, Nazi Youth Leader.

No American reader of advertisements is unfamiliar with the *Testimonial Device,* one of the commonest and most successful of thought soporifics, because it is flattering to all ages and both sexes.

Politicians, labor leaders, business men, and even ministers and educators find the *Plain Folks Device* useful when they propagandize, for it always helps to gain confidence to appear "just plain folks among neighbors." At election time, candidates find it effective to run their campaigns from their own front porch rocking chairs; they are devoted to children, picnics, and carnivals; they even pitch hay and attend services in the old home church. "Just plain folks, like us," respond the unwary voters.

The propagandist who uses *Card-Stacking,* "dodges issues and evades facts, resorts to lies, censorship, and distortion. He stacks the cards against the truth, employing sham, hypocrisy, effrontery." Thus a "favorite son" from a doubtful state is built up out of mediocrity and half-truths into timber adequate for candidacy to the presidency of the United States.

Finally, when we are won over to packing the hall, filling the stadium, marching in the parade, aroused by colors, music, movement, we have succumbed to the desire, common to most of us, to "follow the crowd," and we are ready to be the willing victims of the *Band Wagon Device.* "Thus propagandists campaigning for or against a program will appeal to us as Catholics, Protestants, Jews; as members of the Nordic race, or as Negroes; as farmers, or as school teachers; as housewives or as miners."

It is apparent, we believe, from even so sketchy an explanation of the methods of the analyst that education in techniques of propaganda analysis can take place in almost every course of study. Literature, Music, Speech, Art, History, Journalism, Current Events, General Science, Social Sciences, Logic, and Mathematics are areas in general education for which the Institute for Propaganda Analysis envisages educational plans at present.

The relating of literature of the past and present to problems of democracy, to problems of depressed areas such as the South and the drouth belt, and to problems of mass education and voting provides an abundance of work in the field of propaganda analysis. Mussolini today sways thousands in Rome as did Marc Antony in the Rome of Julius Caesar; the persecution of Jews in the world today differs only in degree from the persecution portrayed in *Ivanhoe.* Plots and counter-plots of modern "agents-provocateurs" put to shame Iago, caught in the web of his own plotting. Literature and current events take on greater significance when they are examined for their relationships. Study of the past throws light on the ambitions, methods, and mistakes of modern statesmen. Most important, we come through such examination of past and present day mistakes to

[3] *Propaganda Analysis,* Vol. I, No. 2, November, 1937. Institute for Propaganda Analysis.

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understand ourselves better—to see why we, as well as those about whom we read in the literature of the past, think and act as we do. Thus can we hope to proceed further in recognizing relationships and cause and effect in the life about us.[4]

One need not teach Music to find the area of propaganda analysis in Music and Speech interesting. Here, the rich experimental material of Dr. Warren D. Allen of Stanford University is the guide, calling to teachers and students of Music everywhere to work with Music and Speech as "two closely allied arts of communication which strongly affect human behavior."[5]

"American speech-music," the Institute teaches, "can debunk many a Sacred Cow, while still fostering the great democratic ideals which demand, more than ever before, precise articulate loyalties." An amusing example, but one whose implications are far from amusement levels, of the way rhythmical changes may betray the real meaning of communication, even when words say the contrary, is given in the quartet from *Pins and Needles*, "Four Little Angels of Peace." Hitler, Mussolini, Chamberlain, and a Japanese general are made to sing in the usually peaceful rhythm of a waltz, but by making belligerent accents, the irony of their pretensions is unveiled in a masterpiece of satire:

"Four litt-le ang-els of
PEACE are WE
Reek-ing with o-dor of
SANCTITY."

"The two sentences quoted above contain peaceful words, but the rhythm-patterns are capable of belligerent, authoritative treatment." "Musicians need to make music talk, to see the direct relationships our musical classics bear to the languages which inspired them. Rhythmical reading of both music and literature, if properly done, will help bring out the content. Students trained in rhythmical reading could become more aware of the rhythmical habits by which, whether using *Yankee Doodle*, *Die Wacht am Rhein*, or the *Internationale* "men are swung into line, and thus, perhaps, they will not be so easily swayed, themselves."

To teachers of Art and History, the Institute studies are directed with an appeal to begin collaboration on six basic problems.

1. The roles of Art and History, in Inculcating Nationalism
2. Aesthetic Ideals Created In Art Appreciation Courses
3. Development of Social Responsibility — Community Cooperation and Civic Pride
4. Advertising Art and "The American Standard of Living"
5. Visual Education
6. Development of Greater Critical Awareness.

[4] Part of Studies designed by Stanford University Language Arts Investigation.
[5] For complete statement, see *Group Leader's Guide*, by Violet Edwards.

In the area of General Science, the teacher and student analyst with Institute guidance find such interesting objectives as: "to develop critical-mindedness in relation to 1. the ever-changing nature of the world in which we live, in relation to 2. propaganda, advertising, and pressure groups. Specific objectives are considered to be: to develop the ability to: 1. recognize the nature of appeals in advertising; 2. to recognize the assumptions commonly made up by readers who purchase advertised articles; 3. to distinguish between matters of fact and statements that could better be called assumptions; 4. to determine the purpose of advertisers with references to specific advertisements (why the advertiser says what he does in printed announcements); 5. justify why we buy what we buy."[6]

"In General Science, groundwork can be laid for understanding the elements of processes of change which are taking place in the world. These changes may be viewed from the standpoints of man's relationships to society; man's relationships to nature; processes of chemical changes; and how change affects individuals and the organization of our society. General Science teachers should draw into this project work teachers of chemistry, of economics, of consumer education, of the social sciences."[7]

The opportunities for analytical studies in the field of consumer education are especially timely. Materials on Pure Food and Drug legislation; Socialized Medicine versus Private Medicine; Consumers' Cooperatives; Chain Stores versus Individual Dealers are waiting adaptation to the needs of the public school classroom.

The significance of propaganda analysis in the Social Sciences is perhaps most readily appreciated of all the areas of application of Institute procedure. This is true, doubtless, because "the development in our students of logical sensitivity, of the habit of seeking evidence or rational grounds for their beliefs, and the ability to interpret and to generalize from facts and information, have long been recognized as being perhaps, the major objectives of education in and for democracy."[8]

"Convincing experimental evidence leads to a conviction that the development of reflective thinking and scientific attitudes is NOT an automatic outcome of instruction in any given subject-matter field. They *can* be outcomes, however, if the objectives are set up as definite goals of instruction. We, with the aid of proper illustrative materials, adequate opportunity for practice, and conscious carry-over into challenging current problems, specifically and purposefully help our students to learn how to think

[6] *Group Leader's Guide to Propaganda Analysis*, pp. 214-215. Published by Institute for Propaganda Analysis. Violet Edwards, author.
[7] Ibid.
[8] Ibid.

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reflectively. We can get them to demand evidence and 'reasons for' peoples' conclusions or assertions of belief. If such objectives are as worthwhile as we believe they are, then *they should be taught for directly, and not left to chance."*[9] Today, of all times, indeed, educators must know that students are in *fact* developing abilities and attitudes, which will enable them to become responsible citizens to improve upon and preserve democracy.

It has not been possible within the scope of this article to do more than suggest the breadth and imaginative scope of propaganda analysis in education and its application in the various areas of study as we now view them. Because the Institute for Propaganda Analysis encourages us as teachers to develop a scientific attitude ourselves, that we may foster it in our students as we wrestle with contemporary problems, it is well to remember here what Miss Edwards quotes from the writing of one of our greatest American analyists, Charles A. Beard:

"One of the prime national delusions, fostered by experts, is that the answer to public questions comes out of facts. . . . Facts do not ask or answer any questions. Facts never tell anybody to do or refrain from doing anything. Furthermore, among the billions of facts that might be assembled . . . only a few . . . will be unearthed. The amount and character of facts dug up will depend upon the ideas which the investigators already have in their hands. What is to be done, if anything, about the facts will depend upon the sources of conviction, prejudice, and opinion, which lie in part, if not wholly, outside, the facts that are excavated."[10]

Not the least of the values in teaching our students how to recognize and analyze propagandas, are the important lessons in self-analysis which teachers and students alike receive. There can be no clear questioning of bias, intentional or unintentional, in others, at home, or abroad, if our own thinking is beclouded by prejudices carefully nurtured and even hidden from our own daylight thinking. Do I react to certain races as I do because they are inferior mentally, habitually unclean, or pugnacious, or because my childhood days were spent amid the fumes of such racial prejudices? Do I vote as I do because my father always did it thus, or because I have studied the candidates and come to a decision on a reasoned basis? Are my reactions to change motivated by fear and hatred, or are they held in check and adjusted by ever wider reading and thinking in current literatures and problems? Answers to such self-searchings are certain to draw students and teachers alike into a closer comradeship of scientific studies, whose aim is truth and knowledge, still the only desiderata worth the challenge to power.

Because of the youth of the Institute for Propaganda Analysis, and its meager financial resources (it is non-profit-making as has been said, and wholly dependent for its resources upon subscription to its publications plus a small grant from the Good Will Fund of the late Edward Filene of Boston) most of its materials are suggestive and general, rather than adapted to specific classroom needs, especially, the public school classroom. Some adaptations, however, have been made even at this early date, one of which we have reported for the *English Journal* of January, 1939, under the title, "Propaganda Enters the English Classroom." This is a project in the use of newspapers, magazines, and books with propaganda slants. Another project adapting materials for propaganda analysis to the course of study in English is in the making at the Evander Childs High School, where Edward Mandell is working with the Common Propaganda Devices.

It is hoped that as teachers become more familiar with the services and publications of the Institute, ways will be found to utilize all its excellent experimental work in the New York public schools. As we see it, no more vital contribution to the cause of free public education and the preservation of an American civilization in which it may safely function can be made then by incorporating the scientific methodology of propaganda analysis in the daily life and work of our schools.

HELEN I. DAVIS.
DeWitt Clinton High School.

[9] Ibid.

[10] Quoted in *Group Leader's Guide* from "The Anti-Trust Racket," *New Republic*, Sept. 21, 1938.

EDITING OUR ENGLISH TEXTS

The long-established custom of submitting high school textual material to college professors for introductory, biographical and glossary addenda has been overdone. The recondite scholarship of the specialist in the graduate school has been meted out to teachers faced with eager groups of immature minds not yet equal to *opus citatus* footnotes and references to Middle-English derivatives. Most classics as media for classroom discussion are gently stifled between dull, scholarly biographies and hopelessly unsuited questions and glossaries. Tables of biographical minutiae demonstrate the solemn fact that the professor has been at some pains to earn his royalties, but their significance for the student is less than questionable. The classic arrives shrouded in exegeses which proclaim the editor's professorial status while student and teacher must seek elsewhere for revitalizing stimulants.

And the general dismay of the

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Treasure Trove hunters and Literary Gem finders is in no way mitigated by the mottled-gray onion skin paper and murky type utilized presumably in the interests of economy. Economical too is the latest fad of Teachers' Colleges and publishers for encyclopaedic hodge-podges of classics, ten, fifteen, and twenty of them, flung together and badly printed in a single volume bearing the alluring title *"Literary Paths and By-Paths,"* or an alliterative *"Highways and By-Ways to Life and Literature."* It affords the professor or principal an additional by-line for his academic escutcheon, to say nothing of ten percent royalties for editing the stuff which starving authors sweated to create. But what about the hapless student and teacher? By what abstruse reasoning has it been established that college professors and principals are alone capable of dressing up a classic for high school use? (My admiration for the philological erudition of George Lyman Kittredge, for example, is deeper than a well; but what is this erudition doing in my ninth grade English class? The Board of Examiners would damn its use forever in a classroom test.)

If teachers are to contend with the radio, movies, *Look* and *Life* for student interest they will have to use an edition of, let's say, *Treasure Island,* that is better than those at present available. Why should it not be possible, instead of the lapidary born-wrote-and-died biography, to have a spirited anecdotal account of R. L. S. in the manner of the New Yorker *Profiles?* They have literary status as legitimate offspring of Strachey's felicitous technique even if professors don't write that way. Why can't we have an illustrated vocabulary of sea-terms? What does a quadrant look like? And can't we have two or three chanties with musical notes? I can see a world of interest aroused by two or three plates showing clipper ships, a colored plate or two of a pirate or buccaneer. What does a doubloon or a guinea look like? The child wonders and finally "skips it," but a plate or two would make him a great deal happier and wiser. And I can see great use for a literary map of England incidentally showing Bristol. It would be far more stimulating than the chronological tables indicating the precise date Stevenson married Fanny Osborne.

The Longmans edition of *Silas Marner* has an indigestible introduction and biography. It is all pulp with little calorific value. Why not a portrait of George Eliot? Why not a profile biography? A plate showing rural scenes and landscapes? A map of Warwickshire, a brief account of spinning, the old wheel and loom? Exactly what was it Marner did all day? What was a "tavern" like? How does it compare with our Bar and Grill?

For that matter, what does Burke look like? What does Parliament in session or the Parliament Building?

Not all children live near the Metropolitan Museum in New York. What kind of weapons and armor did Sir Lancelot use? What sort a boat did Elaine, the unfortunate, use? This is not to say a picture of Elaine herself; a Lily maid to me may be just a Primrose to you. I speak of authentic background and historical materials. Show me a medieval monastery like Guinevere's. What were the rules of knighthood? How did it start? What were the Crusades? How were they a vital step in establishing democratic towns? Was Tennyson *born* old, with that long gray beard of his? How did he look when he read to Victoria Regina? Give these to the student and then, I suspect, he may long to get to a library or museum.

To impart a really thrilling notion of Keats' *Grecian Urn* one would have to point to an example of the miraculous art which inspired the poet. Or at least an illustration. How can one convey the delicate charm of "On a day, alack the day," without music? We've simplified the *Odyssey* but not quite made the heroic tale come to life again. The Turner painting is but one of dozens of pictorial illustrations that would animate the story. After all, even the newspapers show maps of Czechoslovakia after it has disappeared.

Have you ever seen an albatross? The dictionary says they are "a famliy of birds allied to the petrels." But I don't think I've ever seen a petrel, stormy or otherwise.

These queries may as well come to an end right here, though the point should somewhere be added that the meaningless bibliographies so gratuitously squandered on the students might more readily be utilized if someone cared to take the trouble to sift out of the Union Catalogue the titles accessible in local branch libraries.

Beyond this, the problems that may inhere in the suggestions tentatively advanced above, are not as difficult of solution as may be supposed. For example, any number of "cuts" or glossy prints for text illustrations may be procured from museums, historical and other societies, and the American Federation of Arts in Washington. Moreover, references to permanent museum collections and exhibitions would go a long way to facilitate collaboration between school and museum. The museums, especially in large cities like New York, (there are almost two hundred on art alone scattered throughout the country) have visual aid materials which, properly introduced to the student through textual correlation, might actually compete with Sunday movies. I have never seen a specific museum reference in an English text. Nor have I yet come across an English classic edited by an English and Art (or History) teacher in collaboration.

In any case, the correlation of the English text with practicable

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and manageable art and history projects, to say nothing of music via a departmental phonograph can, I submit, be best supplied by the alert, superior teacher. The research and erudition here required are not of the post-post-graduate type; the mental equipment essential for the task is not by a long shot peculiar to the specialist.

Let us, then, have editors who possess an unencumbered literary style and, equally important, a practical knowledge of the grade level aptitudes and interests to which the particular text addresses itself. And let the fact be underscored in red that fresh classroom contact with such groups is a prime requisite.

It is not difficult to explain how, for most of us, an aura of sanctity attaches to our premier universities, but values are being distorted when we seek to reassure our purchasing judgment by looking for these pedigrees on the title pages of our high school texts.

A final word with regard to text book costs. True, a great deal of money has already been invested in typesets now in use—though most of them have by this time more than earned their keep. Let it not, however, be overlooked that the Board of Education is a purchaser of texts in hundreds of thousands. It would be interesting to know how many copies of *Silas Marner* or the *Odyssey* or Burke's *Speech* or the *Idylls*, have been purchased in the last twenty years. One of the New York publishing houses has found it profitable to put out editions of sixty thousand so they may sell at twenty-five cents. Similarly the cost per text of coated stock and plates when spread over fifty thousand or one hundred thousand would be inconsequential.

Can there, finally, be any serious objection to a closer interchange of confidence and opinion between the Board of Education and the publishers on these points, preferably while the text is still in manuscript form? At present the Book Committee passes on *faits accomplis*, after the material has already been bound between covers. If certain formats were categorically rejected and if certain minima by way of suitable illustrations and introduction were insisted upon, the difference in cost per volume in quantity editions would be absorbed by the increased length of life our students would instinctively accord such books.

Surely the prodigious number of texts now used by the schools warrant a better deal for our students and teachers at the hands of editors and publishers.

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Samuel Tilden High School.

THE ORGANIZATION OF A SOCIAL STUDIES COURSE IN THE VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOLS

The organization of a Social Studies course in the vocational high schools presupposes a knowledge and understanding of the aims and purposes and philosophy of vocational education in general. This in turn depends upon an acquaintance with the history of the vocational schools, particularly in this City; how they emerged from the former part-time or continuation schools; how they developed and are still developing into complete and distinct educational entities; and, finally, how they differentiated into specialized or central schools in conformity with the special vocational needs of the community.

While an extended discussion of this phase of the development is not within the scope of this paper, a brief preliminary statement seems almost indispensable to a proper understanding of the plan hereinafter set forth.

During the great wave of post war prosperity, when a great number of adolescents between fourteen and eighteen years of age left the full time schools *en masse* to go to work, it was found necessary to initiate some educational service to fulfill the educational needs of these youngsters. The part-time or continuation school was the answer. Its aim was to bridge the gap between school and industry. Its processes consisted not only of vocationalizing but of socializing the individual. In a word, it was to increase the vocational and civic intelligence of the young worker.

With the advent of the economic depression and its attendant unemployment not only for adults, but, with even greater severity, for young workers, back-to-school and stay-in-school, and even return-to-school movements began to flourish. Young men and young women now found plenty of time which they could profitably spend in school. The part-time school now assumed more and more a full time aspect, and a new set-up was required to meet the needs of these workers or potential workers. The compulsory school age was raised to 16, and the part-time school took only those fortunate ones over 16 who were actually employed. The full time division of the school was now the predominating factor and formed the basis of the newly organized vocational schools. The part-time (or continuation) division now became a mere adjunct to the vocational school. Today, every vocational school in this City has its part time division

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to serve those students over 16 years of age who are gainfully employed.

It is well known that the average adolescent attending the vocational school, whatever other characteristics he may have, is certainly not academic-minded. At best, it can be said that he strives to learn a trade and get a job. At worst, he is no more interested in getting a job or acquiring a skill than he is in gaining academic knowledge. He is often apathetic and indifferent. He is just as often obstreperous, resentful, and even defiant.

Nevertheless, according to best educational theory and democratic principles, even this type of pupil does possess certain latent interests, skills, aptitudes and abilities which need only to be brought out, and then developed to the fullest capacity. The teachers of the vocational school are, therefore, required to discover these skills, aptitudes and abilities, then guide and counsel, as well as train and develop these youngsters along the indicated vocational direction. In addition, the responsibility rests upon the vocational schools (a responsibility which has during the period of the depression, grown increasingly difficult) of placing the young worker in that particular niche of our economic society where he may give the fullest expression to these skills, talents, and abilities.

How to adjust an academic curriculum, more particularly, a social studies course of study to such student, presents a nice problem. It should be remembered that these pupils are not to be trained merely as industrial and commercial workers. They are not only going to be barbers, plumbers, electricians and bookkeepers. They are to function as useful members of society, with full social, economic, and political rights to exercise, and full social, economic, and political duties to perform.

Before presenting a plan for the organization of a social studies course in a vocational high school, it is also important to keep in mind the two types of vocational school operating at present in our City—the general and the central. The general vocational school is for that type of pupil who has as yet not decided upon any particular vocational career. He has no definite vocational program. He simply feels he ought to learn a trade. In this school, the student is put through the various vocational paces. The course is, for the most part, exploratory in nature, offering all kinds of vocational try-out courses and activities. It is *the* vocational guidance institution *par excellence.*

The central school is intended for those who have already made their choice and have definitely launched upon a vocational career. For these students, we have such schools as the Central Commercial, Central Printing, Central Needle Trades, School for Automotive Trades, School for Homemaking, School for Aviation, and the youngest of them all, the Food Trades School.

Our plan for a social studies course applies to the general vocational school, even though the trend now is away from these schools and toward the specialized schools. The course here presented is made sufficiently flexible, however, for adaptation to the needs of the particular central school.

It should also be stated here that from the very beginning, the formulation of a social studies course of study for the vocational high schools has presented a very knotty problem indeed. Committees have tried their hand at it but as yet have been unable to evolve a complete and uniform course of study which would be acceptable to the Board of Superintendents. On one thing, however, all committees are agreed; namely, that for the type of student herein described, and for the accomplishment of the objectives herein mentioned, the traditional course of study used in the academic high schools are inadequate. The latest curriculum construction committee* adopted the following four year sequence, now generally, yet tentatively used in the vocational high schools:

First Term
  Community Civics
Second Term
  Economic Citizenship
Third Term
  Industrial History
Fourth Term
  Industrial History
Fifth Term
  Vocational Economics
Sixth Term
  Vocational Economics
Seventh Term
  American History
Eighth Term
  American History

*The writer was Chairman of that Committee.

The Community Civics and Economic Citizenship courses are, for the present, mere adaptations of those used in the academic high schools. The plan here submitted, contemplates adoption of only those topics in the Community Civics course of study which will function immediately in the lives of these pupils. Everything else must be omitted, or may be used only for the purpose of enrichment of the curriculum for the brighter pupil. Thus, in the following list of what may be called "must" topics in the course of study in Community Civics recommended here, it will be noted in the outline of subtopics, that only items of a practical and immediately functioning nature, are included:

PLAN OF A COURSE OF STUDY IN COMMUNITY CIVICS FOR VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOLS

1. EDUCATION—COMPULSORY EDUCATION LAW
   Continuation Schools

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Vocational Schools
Technical Schools
Evening Trade Schools
Free Technical and Engineering Schools
Child Labor Law—relation to education
Apprentice laws
Employment certificates — Rules and Regulations
After school working papers
Summer working papers

2. LEGISLATION—MAKING THE LAWS

How Factory Laws are Made
How Child Labor Laws are Made
How Housing Laws are Made
How Compulsory Education Laws are Made
How Traffic Laws are Made
How all Laws are Made

3. THE EXECUTIVE—CARRYING OUT THE LAWS

Where and how to get a Plumber's License
Where and how to get an Electrician's License
Where and how to get a Driver's License
Where and how to get a Pilot's License
Where and how to get a License for Use of Chemicals and so forth
Where and how to apply for Workmen's Compensation
Where and how to apply for Unemployment Insurance
Where and how to complain of a Labor Law Violation
How to become a Policeman
How to become a Fireman
How to become a Letter Carrier

4. THE JUDICIARY—INTERPRETING THE LAWS

Where and how to sue for and recover wages
Where and how to recover for work, labor and services
Where and how to recover for goods and materials furnished
How to file a mechanic's lien
Landlord and Tenant cases
Small Claims Court
Magistrate's Court
Where and how to file a complaint
How and why to make an arrest

5. PROTECTING THE FOOD SUPPLY

How to secure pure, unadulterated food
How to correct improper market conditions
How to insure proper weight and measure
Rights and Duties under the Pure Food and Drug Act

6. GUARDING THE HEALTH OF THE PEOPLE

Rules of Hygiene and Health Habits
Prevention of Disease
Occupational Diseases
Hazardous Trades (Division of Industrial Hygiene)
How to Clear up Improper Health Conditions in the Slums
Use of Health and Dental Clinics
How to be Admitted to a City Hospital

7. HOUSING—REGULATION OF BUILDINGS

Slum clearance and housing developments
How to be admitted as a tenant in a model tenement
How to report violations of Tenement House Law
How to enforce safe and sanitary conditions in the factory (State Labor Dept.)
Zoning Regulations
How to apply for help from the HOLC

8. COMMUNICATION AND TRANSPORTATION

Newspapers and their use—Freedom of Press
Mailing—Postal rules and regulations
Radio—Use, abuse, programs, FCC
Telephone—Use, rates, service
Telegraph—Use, rates, service
Cables—Use, rates, service (Wireless operators)
Television—Experiments, possibilities, etc.
Streets and Highways—Uses, improvements
Traffic regulations
Relief of congestion
All transit facilities of New York City
How to get to various parts of the City—subway, el, trolleys, buses, ferries, autos
Aviation Lines
The Port Authority—Harbor congestion
All forms of water transportation. Ocean lines and ocean liners

9. PUBLIC REGULATION OF WORK

Learn all the rules and regulations with regard to Child Labor — Where and how and under what conditions to get employment certificate, and so forth
Rules and regulations under Factory Laws and Ordinances—Factory sanitary conditions, safety devices, violations of labor laws
Workmen's compensation (see above, No. 3)
Unemployment insurance (see above, No. 3)
Old age pensions, and so forth (see above, No. 3)
Labor Unions—Where and how to join the union of the trade in which you are interested. Learn all rules and regulations of this labor union

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Wages and Hours—How to enforce rights under this law

National Labor Relations Board—Rules and regulations. Rights and duties under collective bargaining, and so forth

10. Safety

How to report a fire—by telephone; by fire alarm

Removing fire hazards or obstructions of fire escapes at home

Learn rules of fire prevention

Fire Drills in school; in factory; on boats, and so forth.

Safety on the Street

Safe Driving—Traffic regulations

Safety in the Shop and Factory—how to insure use of safety devices

How to report an accident in the home, on the street, in the factory

11. The Citizen as a Voter

How to become a citizen—Naturalization: application, "first" papers, "second" papers

Voting—Where and how to vote in primary elections

Where and how to vote in general elections

How to register on registration day

How to enroll as a member of a party

How to use the voting machine

How to vote on paper ballot Straight ticket; split ticket

Literacy tests

How to count votes

Voting under proportional representations; how to vote; how to count votes

G. O. Election Project

12. Welfare of the Unfortunate

Where and how to get help for poor widows and orphans

Where and how to get help for a destitute family

Where and how to help the unemployed; WPA

Where and how to get emergency home relief

Where and how to get help for a poor sick person, a poor aged person, a physically handicapped person or an insane person

Use of hospital and ambulance service

13. Correction of the Delinquent

How and where to coöperate with the Crime Prevention Bureau—Join and be a PAL

Join the GO and do your bit in preventing social offenses in the school. Report on your doings at least once a week.

Participate in the School Court and learn the best way of preventing school offenses and reforming school offenders

14. Recreation

List of recreational activities in which you may participate

How and where to apply for more play space or recreational facilities in your neighborhood

Where to hear free concerts, lectures and city radio broadcasts

Free admission to planetarium, museums of arts and science, zoological and botanical gardens, aquarium, and so forth

Parks and playgrounds—permits to play baseball, tennis, golf, camping, swimming, skating, fishing, boating, hunting, and so forth

No plan is submitted for the remaining weeks of the term, because time must be assigned for such vital subjects of current and permanent interest as World's Fair, Pan American Conference, Tolerance, State Constitutional Amendments, Wages and Hours Law, as well as school and departmental projects, such as, Civics Ferry Trip, Chamber of Commerce Prize Essay, Roosevelt Memorial project, G.O. Elections, Peace Day, Holiday Celebrations. For brighter pupils, additional Civics topics as the Water Supply, Disposal of City Waste, City Planning and Civic Beauty, Lighting and Heating or Financing and Budgeting may be assigned.

This course of study in Community Civics was given in detail to point out the practical way in which the academic syllabus should be treated in the vocational school. The rest of this paper will indicate the general plans for the other social science subjects and then discuss the techniques and procedures best suited for teaching in the vocational high school.

Economic Citizenship

In Economic Citizenship, the plan contemplates a survey of the economic activities in New York, including an intensive study of the Occupations, the labor conditions in the Clothing, Printing, Food and other local industries, the orientation of the student to the problem of his own future work in the world by assisting him in the exploration of himself and of selected occupations, emphasizing such topics as How to Find a Job, How to Hold a Job and How to Advance in a Job. Another unit should offer an interpretation of the "educational opportunities available to the students as a means to a well balanced life in which both work and leisure are equally essential," acquainting the student with the sig-

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nificance of his own course of study and the opportunities for vocational training offered by our city, state, and federal governments. Finally, a unit stressing personality qualifications requisite for success in life, including practical exercises in personality development should be included.

Industrial History

Course of Study committees have found the greatest difficulty in the construction of a satisfactory course of study in Industrial History for the vocational schools. The problem arose from the desire of the teachers to make this course as practical as possible and avoid a too academic emphasis. Because it is called "history," some teachers and supervisors say that we should go back at least to the Middle Ages for the beginnings of industry. Others insist that we should concentrate on modern industrial development. The writer is inclined toward the latter view and submits this plan:

Beginning with the Industrial Revolution, trace the development of the factory system, the growth of cities, the expansion of labor and the rise of labor problems. Then take up the development of science and its effect on the ever increasing field of inventions; the greater use of power and its effect on industrial expansion; the rapid development of transportation and communication; the exploitation of our natural resources; the growth of Big Business and the appearance of great industrialists fostering the development of Capitalism and Imperialism. The plan also provides for individual project work on the part of the students, whereby each student traces the history and development of an important industry, preferably an industry correlated with the vocational shop or activity which he follows in the school.

Vocational Economics

The writer recommends eliminating the title, *Vocational Economics* and substituting *Labor Economics*. This means devoting a whole year to an intensive study of that vast and important field in economics—labor. It should include the story of the labor movement; organized labor; conditions of labor; wages—kinds, determination of; labor methods; unemployment; modern industrial unionism; collective bargaining, industrial conflict; the government and labor—control of labor relations; important labor laws — minimum wage, child labor, women in industry, wage and hour laws, and so forth.

American History

The vocational schools, as such, have not been in existence long enough to have evolved a course of study of their own in American History, if indeed such thing were really possible. The old regular high school syllabus is being followed at present with those few students who have reached the seventh and eighth terms in the vocational schools. The writer's tentative recommendation is to use the experimental syllabus in American History, with emphasis on those units which treat of the economic and industrial changes in our history, while military, political and, to some extent, cultural history should be kept in the background.

No plan for a course of study in the vocational schools is complete without some mention of the teaching techniques to be used in putting the course of study in operation. Not the least of the important differences between teaching in the academic and vocational high schools, are the techniques and procedures involved in teaching even the same subject matter.

Remembering the tremendous turn-over of student body in the vocational schools, and that many students enter at various times during the semester, and that they must be admitted whenever they apply, it is quite evident that a large number of these students have but a short stay in the vocational school. Keeping in mind also the fact that these students are, in the main, motor-minded, the inescapable conclusion is that only such teaching methods should be used as will not only fit this type of student, but will conform in every respect to the conditions that obtain in this type of school.

Therefore, only those topics should be taken up which will function immediately in the lives of the student. For the youngster who is admitted late in the term, the syllabus should indicate the most important topic, and should provide for the use of job instruction sheets, arranged in the order of their importance. This is a device whereby a student may, by independent study activity, get the important points of the lesson. Briefly, the basic principles involved are similar to those that underlie the Dalton plan. This seems to the writer the only setup that will meet the requirements of these pupils. It is a genuine attempt to make the course of study fit the pupil. The syllabus is made sufficiently flexible to enable a late-entering student to begin at the middle or near the end of the term, and pursue his study according to his individual capacity and his own rate of progress. To be sure, this means a great tax on the energy and resourcefulness of the teacher, but it also means rewards and satisfaction in worthwhile accomplishments.

A social science laboratory is almost indispensable to achieve these results. The writer humbly states that he has been wrestling for years

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with this problem of teaching this type of student under the above described conditions. It was only after he had adopted the laboratory method and equipped a laboratory, or as his principal stated it "putting academic work on a shop basis", that any satisfactory results were obtained. The project activity should be of the specific vocational type. For example, in a class in Economic Citizenship, one or more students may be found spending the better part of the term in research work in the clothing trade, the photographer trade or the automechanic trade. The instructions consist of directions for doing, making, drawing, cutting, gathering,—in a word, ACTIVITY. All this is performed in the social science laboratory under the direction of the teacher.

The course of study for academic high schools is everything to be desired for the academic high school. It can serve as a foundation for the pupil's later study and for awakening his consciousness to future social and economic responsibilities. But for the vocational school this same course of study needs to be infused with a vocational flavor, needs to be animated through project, motor activity and needs an awakening of the pupil's consciousness to the immediate realities of life.

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A PLEA FOR THE VOCABULARY-UNDERPRIVILEGED

In grappling with the difficulties encountered by the students who are members of the Remedial Reading classes in the high schools, I find that the weakness common to most of them is that induced by the possession of a meager vocabulary.

The fundamental cause of this word poverty varies widely. It may be due to the influence of a foreign language home environment. It may be that the student is a slow-learner and has failed to keep pace with his fellow-classmates in acquiring a vocabulary. Perhaps he has an antipathy to reading, as to all school work; or he may have a fear of the printed word which amounts to a complex, makes any reading assignment a dreaded task, and places voluntary reading on a par with self-inflicted torture.

Whatever the underlying cause may be, a vigorous, purposeful, and, above all, persistent effort to alleviate this condition should be inaugurated at the very outset of his high school career. The emotional and intellectual development of the average student is by no means accompanied by a corresponding expansion in vocabulary. The expressions which were in use in mid-elementary school days continue to do service long after they have become inadequate.

A more exacting attitude on the part of the teacher toward vocabulary weaknesses of students, a keener, more active consciousness (on the part of the student) of vocabulary as a necessary tool, would help to keep alive this pressing issue, and would provide the motivation needed as a basis for constant enrichment of word equipment.

The growth in experience and need for self-expression, together with the lag in vocabulary, combine to form that most unhappy being—the inarticulate student. The feeling of frustration and impotence which assails him at his failure to find the proper expression for anything but the stereotyped, tends to raise steadily a wall of misunderstanding between him and the literate world about him, and makes him the prey of a constantly increasing set of inhibitions.

The superior student may be trusted to use the traditional approaches to vocabulary building—the dictionary, the supplementary reading, the innate desire to expand in mode of expression. For the great majority of our student body of today, however, one needs a less academic treatment. A modicum of dictionary work may be used, but it must be properly motivated by the teacher, well-directed, thoroughly vitalized.

For the most part a dictionary home assignment yields little. Unless the student's sense of alphabetization is keenly developed, dictionary work of any extent proves most wearying, and sets up a barrier to both interest and learning, thus defeating its own purpose. Only the ablest students can profitably use the dictionary on a reading assignment of any length. The average student requires many references to the definition of a new word before it becomes a part of his available vocabulary, even assuming that he has understood the definition, which is not always true.

A much more effectual way of promoting the growth of vocabulary is that of teaching new words in class. Such words, in order to become available for use, should be discussed, a clear and comprehensive meaning evolved, and a working concept formulated. These definitions can then be entered by each student in his individual vocabulary list, and this list kept alive by utilization at varied and oft-recurring opportunities. Any composition assignment, written or oral, may include instructions to use from three to five of the new words. No real mastery of a word is achieved until it has actually

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been applied in a natural situation, and such situations present themselves constantly, both in assignments and in classroom discussions. The efficacy of this method, then, lies in building up a list intelligible to the students and referring to it frequently.

Encourage a student to make every effort to explain the meaning of a word which he professes to understand, but cannot define. The mental struggle involved in formulating the explanation will clarify the meaning for him.

A brief sketch of the evolution of the English language, with the historic reasons therefor should prove valuable as a means of making the student aware of the flexibility of our language and the many sources from which it draws its richness and forcefulness. This should add color to the study of English as a subject, and enhance its measure of vitality.

As a development from this historic material, the teacher may present for discussion and study a few of the more important Latin roots with their derivations. The following are suggested:

Root	Derivative	Definition
Facere—to do or make	1. Factor	(a) Any one of the causes of a result. (b) A person who does business for another.
	2. Facile	Easily done.
	3. Faculty	The power to do some special thing.
Ducere—to lead	1. Induce	To lead to or produce.
	2. Inductive	The process of reasoning which leads from a study of the particular to a general conclusion.
	3. Conducive	Leading to a result.
Tendere—to stretch	1. Tendon	The strong band or cord which joins a muscle to a bone.
	2. Tendency	An inclination or leaning toward.
	3. Distend	(a) To expand. (b) To swell.
Specere—to see	1. Conspicuous	Clearly to be seen.
	2. Espionage	Spying.
	3. Perspective	(a) A distant view. (b) A view of things or facts in which they are in the right relations.
Ponere—to place or put	1. Disposition	(a) Finding a place for. (b) Arrangement.
	2. Transposition	Changing the position of.
	3. Deposition	Removing from office, position or power.
Tenere—to hold or keep	1. Maintain	(a) To keep up. (b) To carry on. (c) To support.
	2. Tenacious	(a) Holding fast. (b) Unyielding.
	3. Abstain	To keep oneself back from.

Root	Derivative	Definition
Acer—sharp	1. Acrid	Sharp or biting to the taste.
	2. Acrimonious	(a) Bitter (temper). (b) Sarcastic.
	3. Acerbity	A harshness.
Mittere—to send	1. Missive	A written message.
	2. Emissary.	A person sent on a mission or errand.
	3. Transmit	To send or pass on.
Capere—to seize or catch	1. Capture	To take by force.
	2. Captive	Held against one's will.
	3. Captivate	To charm.
Plicare—to fold	1. Implicate	To entangle; to involve or mix with.
	2. Complicate	To make hard to understand.
	3. Inexplicable	That which cannot be explained.

To these roots might be added the following Latin prefixes and suffixes:

Prefix

1. *Ante*—before, as in: anticipation; antecedent; antedate.
2. *Post*—after, as in: postpone; postcript; posterior.
3. *Super*—above, as in: superior; superstructure; superimpose.
4. *Sub*—under, as in: subterranean; subordinate; subscribe.
5. *Co, Cum*—with, as in: coöperate; coördinate; cumulative.

Suffix

1. *Tor*—one who, as in: aviator, editor; commentator.
2. *Tion, Ity, Ment*—abstract qualities, states, or processes, as in: meditation; humanity; discernment.
3. *Able*—able to be or fit to be, as in: likeable; movable; malleable.
4. *Acy, Ancy, Ence*—state of being or act of, as in: accuracy; infancy; subsistence.
5. *Ive*—relating to, as in: comparative; destructive; punitive.

Suplementary to a study of these basic elements might be a consideration of the new words which have come into the language with the advent of the scientific, highly mechanical age.

Terminology fundamental to the content subjects forms an important source for the teaching of vocabulary. Much of the failure in these subjects is due to a lack of understanding of the terms germane to the particular subject, and the consequent inability of the student to arrive at a conclusion as to the meaning of the question. In any analysis of the causes of failure, poor vocabulary holds a prominent place. Usually we assume that the failing student has merely come unprepared and does

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not know the answers. More frequently he does not understand the questions, and, starting with a wrong assumption as to what is required of him, he goes off at a tangent, taking any path which seems invitingly easy, however irrelevant, later wondering why, having answered so copiously, he failed. The reply to this plaintive query can only be given in terms of the explanation of the question itself.

In many cases it is necessary not merely to present a definition, per se, but to build up a concept for those whose experience is extremely limited. Some students have so few associative ideas that it is difficult for them to find a criterion by which to judge a new word. With these students it is necessary to proceed inductively, so to speak, from the many simple ramifications of the new term, building up to the word itself as to a climax.

For any but the ablest students words in isolation, unless they are overlearned and applied immediately, have little significance and no permanence. A much more effectual way is that of learning new words in context. In *Following Printed Trails,* by Hovious, there are a number of exercises designed to help build vocabulary through this medium. Exercise 90, pp. 122-126, presents a number of paragraphs containing underlined words, followed by a multiple choice definition assignment. From this, we proceed to Exercise 92, pp. 129-133, in which the student is required to formulate the definitions with the aid of the surrounding material. This material is clear, forceful and interesting, and lends itself to facile interpretation. Even the slow students are stimulated to greater effort in their attempt to clothe the new words with meaning, and, toward this end, they find the context most illuminating.

To sum up then:

1. Present a more exacting attitude toward vocabulary inadequacies of students.

2. Evolve clear, comprehensive definitions in class, and have students enter them in their individual vocabulary lists. Keep these lists alive by assigning words from them to be included in compositions and book reports, written and oral.

3. Encourage students to make every effort to explain words they profess to understand, but cannot define.

4. By way of motivation and enrichment present a short history of the evolution of the English language.

5. Teach a few of the most important Latin roots with their derivations; also prefixes and suffixes.

6. Teach terminology basic to the content subject, and terms of social significance and timeliness.

7. For students with very limited experience and poor cultural background, build up concepts upon which to base ideas presented by new words.

8. Teach new words in context presenting clear, forceful material, which lends meaning to words hitherto unfamiliar to the students.

Socrates defines a word available for use as "an intelligent word, graven in the soul of the learner, which can defend itself and knows when to speak and when to be silent."

I do not think that we can be satisfied with much less than this as a standard of word knowledge, nor with a vocabulary which is not sufficiently extensive to yield, in most cases, that word which best expresses the meaning of the student, instead of a mere approximation thereof.

A thorough understanding of the handling of a wide range of word tools would do away with the inhibitions of the well-meaning but inarticulate student, and pave the way for clearer thinking and more successful performance.

SOPHIE G. CHERNISS.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

COMMERCIAL EXHIBITS AS AN AID IN THE TEACHING OF CHEMISTRY

The cry has often been made for the need of enlivening the chemistry course so that it would not only be more interesting to our pupils but also have a greater relationship to society and everyday life. It is obvious that any innovation that would help to attain these objectives is worthy of serious consideration.

The writer is inclined to agree with many of his colleagues who claim that the crowded curriculum does not permit sufficient time for the introduction of topics which would tend to inculcate in our pupils a sincere feeling and cultural background of chemistry. We realize the necessity of teaching and drilling symbols, valence, formula writing, equation writing, problems and the other fundamentals which make up the language of chemistry. These bear a similar relationship to chemistry as do vocabulary to the study of foreign languages or the elementary processes of addition, subtraction, multiplication and division to the study of mathematics. The teacher thus imbued with the importance of presenting to his pupils at least the fundamentals of the subject does not find time, as a rule, to introduce topics leading to the development of a broad cultural background.

The writer has long pondered over this question in the hope that some idea might come which would allow for the enrichment of the teaching of chemistry without encroaching upon the time required

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for the fundamentals. It is true that the experimental and demonstration work have an effect in this direction. Yet the gap between our laboratory and the outside world seems to be a very difficult one to bridge in abstract terms and with the limitations of time. It would appear, therefore, that the schoolroom and society might be brought closer together by the introduction of more comprehensive objective material.

Trips to industrial plants would go a long way in the proper direction. Such visits present the pupil with the opportunity of appreciating some of the economic and social aspects of chemistry to-day. However, for a number of reasons these visits are not always feasible; large numbers of pupils cannot be accommodated, traveling distances present a difficulty, and the many trips required to give the pupil a cross-section of the field are not possible.

Following these lines of thought, it occurred to us that some of the more important factors of the industrial plant might be brought right into the classrooms. If samples of the raw materials and products relative to the various chemical industries could be obtained and individual displays mounted on appropriate backgrounds, the pupil's interest might be aroused toward the desired goal. These exhibits would be incorporated into the regular term plan and introduced to the classes as the particular subject was being discussed. Objective materials of this type bring the pupil into direct contact with commercial enterprise and picture the use of the raw material as well as the significance of the final commodity in his daily life. Introduction of such attractive displays need not detract materially from the time devoted to the topic. On the contrary, they tend to motivate and inspire the students to a greater appreciation of chemistry and aid in obtaining the desired result—a more enriched curriculum.

All possible industrial sources were contacted with a view to obtaining the materials necessary for the displays. The industries that were solicited included among others, petroleum refining, plastics, aluminum, rubber, radio tube, incandescent lamp, paint and varnish, building materials, chemical and home glassware, fertilizer, photographic film, wet and dry cell batteries, abrasives, alloys, solvents, glue, sulphur, analytical chemical reagents, and water softening. The writer has found that many companies are very eager to coöperate in an educational project of this type. All of the materials were obtained by this method.

The layouts of the raw materials and products were planned and the aid of Mr. John Saunders of the WPA Remedial Reading Project was enlisted in making the mounts.

It should be noted at this point that much time and thought was given in planning the layouts.

While it is true that some of the materials are very attractive in themselves, greater educational benefits can be derived by picturing in the display the steps in the manufacture of the final commodity, starting with the raw materials and leading through the various intermediate stages. Charts and pictures pertaining to the steps in the manufacture were often incorporated in the exhibits. In other cases a few brief sentences typed on a library card relative to the manufacturing process, properties and uses of the product added to the educational possibilities of the displays.

In order to present the reader with a better idea of the displays, it might be well to describe briefly several of the mounts. The exhibit depicting the manufacture of chemical and home glassware is one which impresses our students. From the Corning Glass Works, Corning, New York, we received samples of articles manufactured by this company, together with the more important raw materials used in the making of glass.

Included in this exhibit were the following:

Set of raw materials consisting of

Litharge — Potash — Sand — Lime—Soda
Mixed lead batch and cullet
Mixed lime batch and cullet
Assortment of tube and cane
Bulb—clear
Ampule bottle
Fuse plug
Votive glass—ruby
Antenna insulator
Percolator top
Casserole and cover
Skillet
Beaker—30 cc. capacity

These materials were mounted by means of wire on a wood fibre board measuring approximately two by three feet. The board was coated first with shellac and then painted black. This procedure lends a lustrous finish to the background. The raw materials were received in small bottles each properly labeled. The set of bottles was mounted at the top of the board. White lines were painted leading from these raw materials to the samples of manufactured products. These were clearly marked by name. While this exhibit is almost self-explanatory, it was thought advisable to attach a card bearing a few sentences describing the special properties of this type of glass.

A second display, which would enrich the teaching of the subject of solution was prepared from samples received through the courtesy of Commercial Solvents Corporation, Terre Haute, Indiana. The materials for this exhibit consisted of ten four-ounce bottles containing organic solvents, including acetone, methyl alcohol and others. Obviously these samples mounted alone might not have great significance for our beginning

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students of chemistry. Therefore in conjunction with these solvents a set of three four-ounce bottles was mounted, side by side, at the top of the display board. These bottles contained:

1. Water
2. Copper sulphate crystals
3. A solution of copper sulphate in water

To add to the educational value a card bearing the following legend was attached to the exhibit. "Water is the most universal solvent. The three bottles in the top row contain water (solvent), copper sulphate (solute) and a solution of copper sulphate in water. However, water will not dissolve all materials. The samples in this exhibit represent a few other chemical solvents."

Another display which proved to be quite popular was the one prepared from materials obtained through the courtesy of The Carborundum Company, Niagara Falls, New York. Four museum bottles attractively labeled sand, salt, coke and sawdust were mounted at the top of the board. Converging lines drawn from each of the samples meet at a piece of crude carborundum. Finally a line drawn from this crude material leads to a finished grindstone, a commodity in everyday use. A card describing the importance of the electric furnace in the manufacture and the special properties of carborundum completed this exhibit on abrasives.

Another display which held the interest of the more advanced students of chemistry was called *Analyzed Chemicals*. A very attractive group of twenty-five one-quarter pound samples of CP Analyzed Reagents were received from J. T. Baker Chemical Company, Phillipsburg, New Jersey. The chemicals included salts of chromium, copper, nickel, iron and manganese. These were mounted on an appropriate background, with some of the bottles so placed as to display the label bearing the complete analysis of the product.

There is no doubt that such an array of colored compounds will attract the attention of almost any pupil. However, to aid in attaining the desired goal—an appreciation of the work of chemistry in society—two cards were attached to the display. The information on one of these cards made a point of the great degree of accuracy involved in the manufacture of these compounds. The attention of the student was brought to the analysis of the impurities, exact to the fourth, fifth and often sixth decimal place.

The writer is inclined to agree that the average pupil may not fully appreciate the mathematical values expressed by such numbers. However, the student does know that they represent relatively very small quantities. The second card attempts to explain the importance and need for such carefully manufactured products to society. First, certain types of research work require reagents of the utmost purity or at least a knowledge of the extent to which impurities exist. Second, for medicinal purposes CP chemicals are often essential. Finally, the analytical chemist could not obtain proper quantitative results without analyzed reagents. It has been found that these short explanations have added materially to the educational value of this display.

An attempt has been made to describe and explain the significance of only a few of the exhibits prepared. Up to this point there has been no pupil participation in the setting up of the displays. In the near future, an Exhibit Club will be organized in the endeavor to inspire the students to obtain materials by their own efforts and carry through the mounting of the displays under the proper guidance. The injection of the student point of view may enhance the educational possibilities. Most important of all, the pupils will have a hand in enriching the chemistry course of study and a most sincere scientific interest may develop within them.

Some of the exhibts are now being displayed in the main hall of our school. The author has observed with what great interest and satisfaction the pupils examine the various mounts. This sign of enthusiasm has not been limited only to those pupils actually studying chemistry at the moment. Other students have been so stimulated and impressed that they are awaiting anxiously the opportunity to elect the subject. From time to time, as new displays are completed they are used to replace others and thus it is hoped to maintain a permanent and active interest on the part of the students.

An attempt will be made to estimate the educational value of this project. A questionnaire relative to the exhibits will be prepared and the pupils' opinions obtained. These opinions will give some insight as to the actual accomplishments insofar as this work has aided the students in learning and appreciating the part played by chemistry in our society to-day.

The names of companies that have so generously contributed materials, together with addresses, have been catalogued and the author will gladly furnish a source list upon request. This project is being continued and it is planned to make additions to this list.

Acknowledgement is made to Dr. Morris Meister, Principal, for his coöperation in making available the various facilities required for this project. Throughout this work, the writer has received suggestions and encouragement from Mr. Herman M. Campsen, Jr., Chairman, and other members of the Physical Science Department.

EDWARD A. STORCH.
High School of Science.

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HIGH POINTS

AN ANSWER TO THE AUTHORS OF "ECONOMIC HISTORY IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY"

Mr. A. H. Lass
Acting Editor of High Points
500 Park Avenue, Room 802
New York, N. Y.

Dear Mr. Lass:

In the March, 1939, copy of HIGH POINTS IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY, on pages 35 to 38 there is an article entitled "Economic History in Elementary Schools of New York City," apparently the work of Mr. Ralph B. Guiness, Richmond Hill High School.

After a destructive criticism of the Syllabus in which 137 lines are devoted to specific comments applying to grades 5B, 6A, 7A, 7B, 8A, 8B, there is a brief paragraph captioned "The Textbook." One fails to see why the persons who were making this particular study should have chosen to treat the Theobald-Pugliese-Green *Story Histories,* as if they were the only texts in the field. It may surprise your Executive Board to learn that these Histories cover only the fourth, fifth and sixth year grades. They do not cover the seventh and eighth year grades with which the far greater part of the report deals.

The makers of the report complain that there is not enough emphasis on economics in the Syllabus. Whether or not the Syllabus should place a greater emphasis on economic matters, the fact is that the *Story Histories* put all the emphasis that can be put on them at the level of the nine and ten year olds who are receiving their introduction to history. Even a casual perusal of the *Story Histories* will show that one man of straw after another has been set up by the chairman of the text book committee. In text for the Fifth Year, First Half, note the matter on pages 46, 52 and 53—about the French coming to the New World for the fisheries and for the fur trade. In *Story History* for the Sixth Year, First Half, pages 71 to 76, the economic purpose of the Erie Canal and the economic advantages derived therefrom are clearly set forth. One could pile up instance after instance of this kind in the entire series of *Story Histories.* The writer of the report could not possibly have read or studied these textbooks.

The most amazing part of this report, however, is the distorted and illogical extension of the criticisms on the syllabus to the textbook.

The textbooks, says the committee, uphold the spirit of the syllabus. One would except that if several texts could not be studied, at least one would be selected which covered grades 4A to 8B and not a series which covers only grades 4A—6B.

Your readers would then naturally look for supporting data. Instead, two exceptions to the condemnatory judgment are made and not a single instance is given of evidence to support the criticisms carried over from the syllabus to the textbooks. This remarkable bit of logic is concluded by the downright indefensible statement: "The fact that this was a corporate capitalistic experiment, as described on pages 76-77, seems to have been overlooked." We ask your readers to go with us to *Story History* 5A, the pages cited, and read: "King James signed two papers, charters, forming two companies for trade and colonization on our Atlantic Coast. These were not very different from big companies of our times that import rubber or petroleum, or fruits from foreign lands. In our day we should say that they were 'incorporated' rather than 'chartered.'" Yet the author of the report states that we seem to have overlooked something. How far would he go with ten year olds? Shall we ask them to "grapple with the problems" that have made the Brain Trust groggy? The proponents of "modern scholarship" and "sound pedagogy" appear to be oblivious to the fact that subject matter must be presented on the level of comprehension of the pupils.

To sum up: The method of argumentation in the single paragraph of 20 lines on page 38 of HIGH POINTS, which attacks the good name of a text book, is to make a sweeping condemnatory statement. Then two exceptions are cited—which one may take as a compliment. Finally 15 words in one citation are actually quoted from our text and a misstatement is made in connection with this single citation. Where are the vaunted "ethical values," where is the "scientific thinking" that the authors of the report have set up as among their objectives?

THE AUTHORS OF STORY HISTORIES

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HIGH SCHOOL DIRECTORY—CORRECTIONS

Borough of Brooklyn

High School	*Address*	*Principal or *Teacher-in-Charge*	*Administrative Assistants*	*Telephone*
ABRAHAM LINCOLN	Ocean Parkway and West Ave.	Gabriel R. Mason	Arthur Hirschberg Bertha Cohen	Mayflower 9-5474
ALEXANDER HAMILTON Annex, P. S. 83	150 Albany Ave. 1630 Dean St.	Dr. Jacob M. Ross Harvey L. Bagenstose*	Raymond L. Noonan Clifford H. Coon	President 4-4180 President 4-6558
BAY RIDGE Annex	67 St. and 4th Ave. 63 St. and 4th Ave.	Elizabeth T. Fitzpatrick Marguerite E. McGuire*	Mabel R. Benway Miriam T. Whitaker	Shore Road 8-0204 Sunset 6-0606
BOYS HIGH Annex, P. S. 11 Annex, P. S. 43	832 Marcy Avenue Waverly and Greene Aves. Boerum and Manhattan Ave.	Alfred A. Tausk Robert I. Raiman* Charles E. Hughes*	George C. Hanson Richard L. Swanton	Main 2-4310-1 Prospect 9-7101 Stagg 2-4340
BROOKLYN TECHNICAL Annex, P. S. 69	29 Ft. Greene Place 155 Ryerson St.	Albert L. Colston Harry A. Cohan*	Ralph Breiling Charles E. Ledley	Sterling 3-0135-6-7 Prospect 9-0650
GIRLS HIGH SCHOOL	——	——	Maud Miller Jane A. Carney	——
LAFAYETTE	——	——	——	Esplanade 2-3480-1-2
NEW UTRECHT Annex 192 Annex 3 Annex 180	79th St. and 17th Ave. 18 Ave. and 47th St. 86th St. and 18th Ave. 56th St. and 16th Ave.	Maurice E. Rogalin Tessie M. Jamer* Eva Robinson* Barney Hyman*	Mrs. Anita Appel Dr. F. A. Leuchs	Beachview 2-2502 Ambassador 2-6851 Bensonhurst 6-0711 Ambassador 2-0518

Boys High School.

ESTHER M. KOOPERMAN.

AN ANSWER TO MRS. FUHRMANN

1716 Avenue O
Brooklyn, New York
May 4, 1939

Editor of HIGH POINTS
500 Park Avenue
New York, N. Y.

Dear Sir:

Although it is ludicrous that a controversy in the American Association of Teachers of German should be aired in HIGH POINTS, it seems to me that since it was started, no false statements should be left unanswered. Mrs. Fuhrmann's letter implies that the action taken at the special meeting of the A.A.T.G. was not sanctioned by the majority of the membership. May I state that at a regular meeting of the A.A.T.G. held subsequently the question was brought up, and the action taken at the special meeting to which Mrs. Fuhrmann refers was aproved by a large majority of the members of the A.A.T.G.?

I hope that this may put an end to the publication of matters which are distinctly non-professional and have no place in HIGH POINTS.

Yours truly,
IRMA L. SILBERBERG.

GUIDE FOR THE CONDUCT OF FIELD TRIPS IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

Our pupils in the Social Sciences acquire too much of their information through reading, and not enough by actual experience and observation. They learn empty expressions and phrases, which have very little or no tangible meaning, because they are not correlated with any visual images which would serve to vivify such phrases. To correct this lack in our educational system, more and more, teachers should emphasize field trips, so that pupils may be given an opportunity to study and see educational, social, and economic enterprises first-hand.

For example, a visit to an auto assembly plant probably would teach pupils more about "mass production" and "division of labor" than a dozen classroom recitations, for the pupil would not have only an opportunity to see every phase in the manufacture of some article, but also would have the opportunity to talk with the men and women engaged in various occupations. He can thus secure information which even an extraordinarily well informed teacher might not be able to furnish. In this way, too, he would get other adult points of view besides that of the teacher. This would give him a broader viewpoint and a truer perspective of certain economic problems.

Moreover, not only would the pupil carry away an image of the processes of production on a vast scale, but he would be made aware of problems of maintenance, distribution, and labor.

Likewise, this increased knowledge of types of work in and

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about New York City might react beneficially upon him when his future vocation shall have to be selected. Through his awareness of the kinds of vocations available, the nature of the work involved in each occupation, the inherent hazards, and various other factors, he could, in all probability, choose a life career with more intelligence than he could if he had not visited these various plants, factories, museums, etc.

Other advantages of field trips will undoubtedly present themselves. For example, a child who is not "book-minded" often responds enthusiastically to any kind of trip or excursion, and if enough interest is aroused, may even be inveigled into opening a book on the subject. Thus, it is hoped that both the superior and the slow pupils may both be encouraged in their pursuit of knowledge in this practical way.

From the point of view of the teacher, field trips are of great benefit in that they enrich the teacher's background by giving him direct contact with the material he teaches, and often serve as a focal point in the motivation of a lesson.

To encourage the expansion of this type of experience, the writer communicated with over fifty museums, factories, banks, government institutions, and, as a result, prepared the following "Guide." He hopes that both teachers and pupils will find the chart of some vaue to them.

GUIDE FOR THE CONDUCT OF FIELD TRIPS IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

Organization	Number Students Desired	Time for Visit	Guide?	Notice in Advance	Charge	Remarks
Sub-Treasury	50 Max.	Sat., 1—4 P.M.	Yes	2 days	No	Address Supt., Room 104, U. S. Court House, Foley Square, N.Y.C.
Pennsylvania R. R.	25 Max. 10 Min.	Daily, 10 A.M.—3 P.M. After 8 P.M.	Yes	2 weeks	No	Will furnish sound and silent films. Book several weeks in advance.
U. S. Lines—1 Broadway	40 Max. 10 Min.	Preferably Tues., 10 A.M. —Noon; 1—4 P.M.	No	1 week	No	
Loose-Wiles Biscuit Co., Thomson Ave., L. I. City	20	Tues., Wed., or Thurs., 10 A.M. or 2 P.M.	Yes	1 week	No	No visits permitted on holidays.
Botany Mills, Passaic, N. J.	55 Max.	Daily, except Sat., 9 A.M. to 5 P.M.	Yes	1 week	No	Movie film available in fall, 1939. Will send fabric primer on request, address Mrs. G. M. Hogan, Botany Worsted Mills, 1450 Bway., N.Y.C.
Museum of City of N. Y., 5th Ave. & 104th, N.Y.C.	30 Max. 40 Min.	Wed. and Sat., 10 A.M. to 5 P.M.	Yes	1 week	No	Lends lantern slides and 16mm films and portable history sets.
Consolidated Edison Co., 4 Irving Place, N.Y.C.	50 Max.	Daily, except Mon. A.M. and Sat. P.M., 9:45—2:25.	Yes	1 week	No	Will furnish film "Electrifying New York" plus operator. Book through Adv. Dept. (film 45 min. in length.)
Chase National Bank	20 Max.	Mon.-Fri., 9 A.M. 5 P.M. Sat., 9-12 Noon.		2-3 days	No	Will only permit tour of exhibit, "Movies of the World."
Ford Motor Co., Edgewater, N. J.	20 Max.	Daily, except Fri., Sat. and Sun., 10, 11, 1, 2, 3 P.M.	Yes	3 days	No	Will lend films.

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GUIDE FOR THE CONDUCT OF FIELD TRIPS IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES—(Continued)

ORGANIZATION	NUMBER STUDENTS DESIRED	TIME FOR VISIT	GUIDE?	NOTICE IN ADVANCE	CHARGE	REMARKS
Museum of Science and Industry, 30 Rockefeller Plaza	300 Max. 35 Min.	Mon. through Fri., 1—6 P.M.	Yes	1 week	No	Guide available 1—3 P.M. only.
National Biscuit Co.	25 Max. 12 Min.	Tuesday, Wed., Thurs., 10, 1, 2 or 2:30.	Yes		No	For appt. call Mrs. W. C. Blume, Chelsea 3-8000, Ext. 232. Visitors must be 16 years of age or over.
Bush Terminal Co., foot of 43rd St., Bklyn.	20 Max. 10 Min.	Weekdays at 10 A. M., or 3 P.M.	Yes	3 days	No	
Floyd Bennett Airport, Bklyn.	Any no. if properly supervised	Daily, except Sat., Sun., and holidays.	Yes		No	Write for permission to visit field.
Museum of Natural Hist., Cent. Pk. W. & 79th St.	Any no. if properly supervised	Any school day from 10 A.M.—5 P.M.	Yes	1 week	No	Will lend films and illustrative material to schools.
N. Y. Curb Exchange, 78 Trinity Place, N.Y.C.	50 Max.	Any day between 10 and 3.	Yes	1 week	No	Will give booklet.
Mumeum of the American Indian, Bway. & 155th St., N.Y.C.	45 Max. at least 1 teacher to 45	Daily, except Sun. and holidays, 2—5 P.M.	Yes	None	No	Guides furnished only if arrangements are made in advance.
New York Times, 229 W. 43rd St.	25 Max. No min.	Daily, except Sat., Sun. & hol., 9:30, 11, 2, 4 P.M.	Yes	1 week	No	Will distribute booklet on Story of the News. No pupil until 15 permitted to visit.
New York Central	50 Max.	Any day except Sat. P.M. and Sun.	Yes	3 days	No	Apply to J. H. Hustis, Mgr., Grand Central Terminal.

GUIDE FOR THE CONDUCT OF FIELD TRIPS IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES—(Continued)

ORGANIZATION	NUMBER STUDENTS DESIRED	TIME FOR VISIT	GUIDE?	NOTICE IN ADVANCE	CHARGE	REMARKS
Dept. of Sanitation, Bureau of Sewage Disposal	25 Max. 10 Min.	Weekdays, 10 A.M.—3 P. M.	Yes	1 week	No	Coney Island and Wards Island plants suggested for visit. Will furnish in advance one copy to teacher.
N. Y. World-Telegram	8 Max. 2 Min.	Mon. through Fri., 3 P.M.	Yes		No	
R. H. Macy & Co.	20 Max.	Any day at 11 A.M., 2 or 4:30 P.M.	Yes	About 2 weeks	No	
Morgan Library	30 Max.	Tues. and Thurs., 11 A.M. —4 P.M.; Sat., 10 A.M.— 1 P. M., except holidays.	No	1 week	No	
Metropolitan Mus. of Art	Unlim.	Mon.—Sat., 10 A.M.—5 P.M.	Yes	Apply in adv. Rhine. 4-7960	No	Will lend slides and photographs. Write to Museum Ext. Division.
French Line	Unlim.	See schedules of ships in newspapers.	Yes		Yes	25c charge for groups to visit Normandie. 10c for other ships.
National City Bank	20 Max.	By arrangement.	Yes	About 2 weeks	No	Write to Mr. W. G. Speer for appointment.
N. Y. Public Library, 52nd St. & 5th Ave.	Small group preferred	By arrangement.	Yes	Well in adv.	No	Will lend pictures on presentation of library borrowers' cards.
N. Y. Stock Exchange						Expects to be ready by mid-April to receive High School visitors.
Port of N. Y. Authority, 111 8th Ave., N.Y.C.	20 Max.	Daily, exc. Sat., Sun. and holidays, 9 A.M.—3 P.M.	Yes	3 days	Yes & No	To visit bridges, charge of 5c. No charge to visit Port of N. Y. Bldg. Will lend and furnish illustrative materials and films. Send for Reference Handbook.

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GUIDE FOR THE CONDUCT OF FIELD TRIPS IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES—(Continued)

Organization	Number Students Desired	Time for Visit	Guide?	Notice in Advance	Charge	Remarks
Federal Reserve Bank	35 Max.	Mon.—Fri., 10—11 A.M. or 1:30—3 P.M. Sat., 10—11 A.M.	Yes	1 week	No	Request that teachers take only students studying Economics.
Western Union Tel. Co.	50 Max. 10 Min.	Weekdays between 9 A.M. and 5 P.M.	Yes	1 week	No	Will furnish literature on telegraph to visitors. Will furnish speaker to talk on communication.
Borden Milk Co.	40 Max. 15 Min.	Mon. to Fri., 10:30 A.M. to 5 P.M.	Yes	1 week	No	Will provide sound film and operator. Arrangements for plant visits made through Bureau of Nutrition, 110 Hudson St., N.Y.C.
N. Y. Telephone Co.	8 Max.	Mon. to Fri., 10 A.M. and at 3 P.M.	Yes	3 days	No	Visitors should be over 15 years of age. Illustrative material available at Business Office.
Sheffield Farms Co., 524 West 57th St., N.Y.C.	50 Max. 25 Min.	Mon. to Sat., 9 A.M. and at 7 P.M.	Yes	At least 2 weeks	No	Will furnish literature and pencils to visitors. Adv. Dept. will show film.
American Sugar Refining Co., 120 Wall St.	30 Max. 5 Min.	Tues. to Fri., 10 A.M.	Yes	1 day	No	Visitors to be over 15 years. Furnish illustrated booklet.
Postal Telegraph, 67 Broad St.	10 Max.	Daily except Sat. and Sun. at 3:30 P.M.	Yes	3 days	No	Make arrangements through Mr. L. R. Lincoln, General Traffic Supt.
Police Headquarters and Police Academy						Police Dept. will honor requests only if signed by Principal of school.

HENRY APPEL

THE PRINCIPLE OF INDETERMINISM IN HISTORY

Teachers of the Social Studies and Examiners, Please Take Note!

About two years ago, a dispute arose among members of a committee which was preparing an examination for the regular high-school license in history. Four prominent authorities in the field were approached to express an opinion. The following letter was sent to each:

My Dear Professor.....:

In connection with the preparation of the examination for Teacher of History and Civics in the high schools, a dispute arose as to whether or not a certain objective question permitted of more than one answer. The question is as follows:

"In elaborating a system of checks and balances the members of the Constitutional Convention were influenced most by: 1) the theories of Montesquieu, 2) the revolutionary concepts of equalitarianism, 3) the practical considerations of economic interest, 4) the principles formulated by Hobbes in his Leviathan."

In behalf of the examination committee, I am writing to four authorities in the field of government. Will you please honor us with a response?

Sincerely yours,

The answers received follow:

My dear Mr.....:

I am of the opinion that the above question admits of but one answer: "The Theories of Montesquieu."

Sincerely yours,

PROF. EDWARD S. CORWIN
Prof. of Jurisprudence
Princeton University

Dear Mr.....:

I am inclined to view that "practical considerations" counted most heavily in the Convention, but I could not demonstrate that proposition as I could one in physics or chemistry to general satisfaction. Hence the question is "arguable."

Yours sincerely,

CHARLES BEARD
New Milford, Conn.

My dear Mr.....:

Referring to your question in your letter of November 24, I should say that the question you set down permits of only one answer in the series given. The answer would be No. 1, the theories of Montesquieu.

If, however, a student would call attention independently to the separation of powers in the English government, as between Parliament, the Crown and the courts, I should say that he was well within his rights.

On the basis of the four alternatives, however, No. 1 would seem to be adequate.

Very sincerely yours,

CHARLES E. MERRIAM
Dep't. of Political Science
University of Chicago

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My dear Mr.....:

Replying to your letter of the 24th, I am of the opinion that the question which you quote permits of more than one answer that could not fairly be regarded as wrong. Historical influences cannot be measured and compared quantitatively and I do not think that they ought to be made the subject of this type of question. A question that involves a judgment as to the comparative importance of historical influences is not really an objective question.

It may well be that the system of checks and balances adopted by the Constitutional Convention would not have been adopted if either "the theories of Montesquieu" or "the practical considerations of economic interest" had been absent from the minds of the members of the Convention. There is no doubt that many members of the Convention were convinced that a judiciary separate from and independent of the legislature was essential as a safeguard of property rights, and it is well known that the theories of Montesquieu were frequently referred to. In other words, if I were marking answers to this question I should not feel justified in refusing credit to either 1) or 2).

Very sincerely yours,

R. L. SCHUYLER
Department of History
Columbia University

Thus are the historians brought back into the presence of the "murmurs and scents of the infinite sea."

SAMUEL STEINBERG.
S. J. Tilden High School.

AN AID TO GUIDANCE—THE DICTATING MACHINE

"Every interview a recorded interview" is a slogan as worthwhile for a school guidance department to hold as it is difficult to observe.

No one within the guidance field nowadays seriously questions the value of recording the significant interviews that counselors hold with students, their parents, teachers, and others concerned with their problems. On the other hand, every counselor, howevermuch he may believe in such records, is hard put to it to strike a satisfactory balance between satisfying the immediate needs of the individual students under his guidance and keeping adequate records. And often the temptation is strong to shirk what seems to be "just another record" in favor of doing the job at hand. The pressure of a counselor's day in a large city high school would almost justify such shirking were it not that the needs of students, from the long-term point of view, require careful recording.

How, without the record, could continuity of service be assured to students? Inevitable changes of counselor personnel as well as absence make it necessary from time to time to substitute one counselor for another. The advantages of adequate records in such cases, so that the thread may be readily picked up by the succeeding counselor, are obvious.

Recording, also, effects an economy of time and effort in planning and conducting interviews. Memory cannot be depended upon to furnish essential details, especially in view of the large numbers of students under counsel. It is wasteful to go over ground already covered in previous interviews.

Again, where new problems and decisions arise in a student's case, it is of great value to be able to review past history which will throw light upon the student's interests and inclinations and make it possible to view his new problem in perspective. The record has also been found to be invaluable in allocating responsibility in controversial matters.

Furthermore, the record furnishes the actual basis for analysis of conditions at any time that research may be attempted. A great deal of recorded material that is not immediately usable in a case may serve far-reaching ends as part of a study of many similar cases.

And, very important, recording has a training value for counselors. Because the personal interview is the chief "tool" of counselors and because proficiency in interviewing can be learned, it is important that counselors develop a critical attitude toward the interviewing techniques they employ. The recording of interviews, which includes the interpretation of fact as well as the facts themselves, provides an opportunity for critical review in order to note strong and weak points and to work toward self-improvement.

In the Guidance Department of the Samuel J. Tilden High School, the difficulties of recording an average of four interviews with each of 5,000 students each year appeared well-nigh insurmountable up to the time when the dictating machine was introduced. Its advent has represented a real advance in the counselors' ability to keep adequate records.

What counselors like about it chiefly is its availability. There it is, at one's elbow, ready to take the comment, anecdote, suggestion, or interpretation that is so often lost if allowed to grow cold from delay. It represents an ever-ready and instant means of recording *at the psychological moment*. It eliminates much jotting down of notes and thereby saves time; and it patiently puts up with the many interruptions to which counselors are subject.

Some counselors estimate that they have been able to increase their counseling time by 25% through the use of the dictaphone, and at the same time to produce better interview records. All have considered it a solution, partial at least, to the problem of recording.

ELSA G. BECKER.
Division of Guidance and Placement.
Board of Education.

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In a recent radio speech before the Theatre Forum Alliance, meeting at the Hotel Iroquois, New York City, Leslie Howard made some remarks on the present state of the theatre that should interest every teacher of appreciation of the drama. His words on the future of the drama in America, being those of a star of the screen and one of the most popular figures on Broadway, merit careful consideration. Mr. Howard took a long-range view of the situation and concluded that unless a love for the legitimate stage was developed in our young boys and girls, the living drama was doomed to a tragic end. Mr. Hendrik Willem Van Loon and Miss Theresa Helburn, director of the Theatre Guild, in recent addresses expressed similar opinions.

Teachers of appreciation of the arts have the great responsibility of training for the future. The love for music, art, and literature is not instinctive. It is acquired either from one's parents, older friends, or teachers. In Robert P. T. Coffin's *Portrait of an American,* we observe an unforgettable example of appreciation learned from one's father. Long Tom Winship loved, read, and quoted the works of Shakespeare with almost religious devotion. Naturally, his son acquired not only the well-worn copy of Shakespeare, but an ardent love for the master's word-music and dramatic genius.

Such early appreciation for the living drama was developed in many great men in literature. Instances could easily be cited from the early life of Marcel Proust, Grillparzer, Goethe, Ruskin, Leigh Hunt, and many others.

Unfortunately, not all young men and women of America today have parents who truly love Shakespeare or any other dramatist enough to take his works down from the shelf and read them to the assembled household. Such behaviour suggests Victorianism or Lewis Carrollism. Besides, the radio and the cinema offer competing attractions which would surely prove more appealing than a paternal reading of the Bard's great soliloquies. Consequently a vast number of young boys and girls are growing into adolescence without ever having seen a legitimate play. With the cinema and the radio they are quite familiar, but the theatre of the spoken word is utterly strange to them.

Mr. Howard fully realized in his speech how serious the situation was. He admitted that although the theatre was not dying, it was showing signs of sickness. "Our only hope of reviving it and keeping it," he said, "is in the younger generation. Unless the younger generation becomes interested, it will become defunct."

Predictions of the impending demise of the American theatre are not new in American dramatic history. In the 1890's when the Theatre Syndicate was exercising its dictatorial control, prophets of doom were numerous. In 1929 Samuel Spewack, co-author of the successful comedy, *Boy Meets Girl,* interviewed Eva Le Gallienne, Arthur Hopkins, Jane Cowl, Florenz Ziegfeld, David Belasco, Philip Moeller, Kenneth Macgowan, and George Abbott on the subject of the causes and cures for the moribund state of the theatre.

The opinions ran the gamut from complete abandonment of hope for the legitimate theatre by Arthur Hopkins to Eva Le Gallienne's solution which she found in the repertory theatre. Strangely enough none of these distinguished personages said anything about the part to be played by audiences of the future.

This younger generation has its own definite ideas about drama. It knows what it likes. Remarkably well-developed tastes are to be found in young boys of fourteen and fifteen years of age. Why have these opinions not been ascertained? Have not teachers of drama been defeating their own ends when they have attempted to force their pupils to like *Hamlet* or *The Rivals,* when these youngsters have not the slightest reason of background, culture, apperceptive basis, or emotional stimulation to like such plays?

The fundamental fallacy in dramatic instruction thirty years ago was the exclusive reliance on the written word as a means for emotional response. The most elementary study of the drama makes it clear from the very beginning that a play "exists to create emotional response in an audience."[1] Shakespeare never intended that his plays should be read in the classroom or anywhere else. The play was to be *heard,* to be *acted,* to be *seen in performance.* Presentation, not reading of drama, should be the youngsters' first acquaintance with this most vital of all the arts. Who would think of having schoolboys read scenarios of movies before they ever saw a movie? What delight can the average opera libretto offer to one who cannot hear the opera? The theatre must come to the younger generation in the form of plays on the stage, not as words in a printed text.

Later, when the play has been seen, the text may be read to discover beauties of phrasing and thought which may have been missed in the performance. Such a practice is followed by many admirers of Maxwell Anderson, whose poetic plays have an unusually large circulation. One of them, *Elizabeth the Queen,* has been printed in a text edition which is very popular.

The first step, then, in rebuilding the theatre for its future greatness is a revolution in the idea of teaching drama by book into teaching it by actual performance. At this time, conditions are extremely favorable because of the Federal Theatre Project's activities. Many

[1] George P. Baker, *Dramatic Technique,* 1919, p. 43.

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cities which have not had a legitimate play in years, now have a permanent company which is capable of producing classics as well as new plays. Who can easily forget the W.P.A. all-Negro *Macbeth*, which was performed in New York in 1936, or the extremely effective first American production of Marlowe's *Dr. Faustus?* The Federal Theatre Project should consider its function in educating a theatre-starved nation to a love for the art of the living drama.

In New York, close coöperation has been effected between the Federal Theatre Project and teachers. Groups of twenty-five pupils or more are given reduction in the price of seats. A capable publicity staff keeps the teachers of English well-informed on new and old productions. To date, thousands of boys and girls of the high schools have availed themselves of this privilege and have seen one or more Federal Project plays. Their reactions if they could be collected would be of great interest to people concerned with the theatre.

If teachers and makers of curricula would pause to listen to the wishes of their high school pupils, they would learn many profitable facts. The present writer asked a group of boys in the sixth term of high school to answer as truthfully as they could the question, "How to Cultivate a Taste for Good Plays." This had come after a course in the appreciation of one-act plays. Each boy was required to see at least one legitimate play. They had studied the dramatic critics of New York and were acquainted with some of the critical terms as well as criteria for judgment. The value of their answers lies not only in their sincerity but in the indication of methods of approach that might well be followed by teachers in their strenuous efforts to "sell" appreciation to the students. Two of the suggestions follow, exactly as they were written. Since they afford an insight into the student's efforts to find the right words for their concepts, they are printed exactly as written.

1. As I see it, there is but one way to cultivate a taste for good plays, and that is by seeing them. In due time, by means of comparison, the individual will learn to appreciate good plays, if he has an ordinary amount of intelligence. Because after reflecting on the value of the good play in comparison with the worthlessness of the trash, the trash will be discarded.

An important factor that will help in the cultivation, is the reading of the critics' comments. In this there is a chance for the mind to expand by the controversy of opinion between the reader and the critic. Another aiding factor is intelligent discussion with persons who have more than an ordinary knowledge of plays.

To sum up, the important eelment, I would say that by simple comparison and intelligent discussion a taste for the better plays can be cultivated.

2. In order to gain an appreciation for good plays, one must differentiate the qualities which make up a "trashy" play and those of a good play. A "trashy" play is one that gives an untrue characterization of life and has a theme which is worthless and cannot be applied in later life. But in a good play the theme is worthwhile and it represents a true characterization of life. Therefore, in order to make the student appreciate good plays, the play *must* have a good theme, a subject which will help him solve some future problem. I consider the theme outstanding because in a week the student will forget the plot, perhaps, but he can never forget the theme if it is very worth while. In order to develop the theme the play should be read aloud and perhaps acted so that the meaning will become clearer and the student can ask questions that may arise. Through a good theme the student will desire to read only good plays.

3. I think the only way to develop a liking for the better class of plays is to start someone on the right track when he is young. Don't let him read any trashy plays unless you get one that you think is so bad that it might show him the contrast between trashy plays and the better plays. The only way to develop the liking of better plays in preference to trashy plays in older boys and girls is not to let them acquire any of these magazines with poor plays, but buy them good plays continually and they will soon learn the difference between trashy and good plays.

4. My idea of developing the mind to read classic plays instead of trashy ones is the development of trash to classic ones. Almost every one has read a trashy play. But not everyone has read a good play. I think that boys should start this development from trash to classic plays at about the ages of sixteen to twenty-one. If I were the teacher I would give the boys a trashy play to read so that they can become accustomed to that kind of play which they are not to read, and then I would gradually give them classic plays until by the end of the term the student would go out in ignorance of trashy plays.

JOSEPH MERSAND.
Boys High School.

PROPAGANDA

The educational world has discovered propaganda. From all sides comes the demand for the terrific smiting of this suddenly foul fiend. Speakers at the Progressive Educational Association stress the necessity for education against propaganda. Teachers' organizations devote whole bulletins to the "menace." The Seventh Year Book of the National Council for the Social Studies devotes 192 pages to the problem. The Institute of Propaganda Analysis presents a monthly letter on current propagandas and keeps a hardworking staff of people constantly developing new study material. The Association of Teachers of English of New York City contributes a panel discussion to the field. Innumerable books and articles on various phases of propaganda and education stem from the quiet studies of college professors and the equally quiet but more palatial offices of public relations counselors. Listening to radio forums on propaganda have become almost compulsory assignments for teachers as well as students.

That all this clamor for propaganda study is a wholesome attitude is undeniable. To make both teachers and students aware of the subtlety and diversity of propagada is not only valuable but extremely necessary if education is to concern itself at all with critical thinking. Certainly if we make any pretence of teaching children to think we cannot ignore the many factors which influence opinion. There is an undoubted need for a study of propaganda in our public schools. But before such work is introduced, I think it highly desirable that we survey the field thor-

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oughly and get some clear concept of what we want to do.

It is fairly obvious that we ought to have some idea of what propaganda is before we begin. And yet I submit there are as many interpretations of propaganda as there are writers in the field. Frederick Lumley in *The Propaganda Menace* says that "Propaganda is promotion which is veiled in one way or another as to its origin or source, the interests involved, the methods employed, the content spread, and the results accruing to the victims" —Leonard Doob disagrees. As a social psychologist he emphasizes the effect that propaganda has on the individual without considering the moral implications whatsoever. He concludes by indicating that perhaps all we have is a choice of propagandas. Peter Odegard in *The American Public Mind* states, "Propaganda in itself is not bad. It never tells the whole truth but who knows the whole truth to tell? It can be an instrument for good." And as we read one after another, the definitions vary and the polemics based on those definitions follow suit. There is a growing literature which is significant attempting to differentiate between education and propaganda. The educational Group Leader's Guide to Propaganda Analysis, a really helpful piece of work, sets as one of the purposes of the course in propaganda the formation of a definition, and yet the Institute itself feels constrained to present one in its very first paper: "Propaganda is expression of opinion or action by individuals or groups with reference to predetermined ends." This definition implies that some propaganda is socially desirable but the Seventh Year Book of the National Council for the Social Studies leaves one with the impression that "propaganda is a sort of twentieth century witchcraft." It may be possible to evolve some sort of work in propaganda study but I submit that the attitude of the teacher as well as the scope of the work will be considerably affected and the validity of the analysis may certainly be impaired unless some limits are decided upon. It is also evident by reading some of the most eminent public relations counselors how easily propaganda study can become propaganda for some cherished belief. It is apparent that any study of propaganda is insufficient if it merely confines itself to a study of processes.

The techniques of propagandists do not operate in a vacuum. They operate in a very real world filled with tension and conflict—and it is these underlying stresses and strains that produce propaganda and eventually determine its success or failure. Because propaganda does fail, in a sense, where it does not meet the test of reality. It is not propaganda, alone, that supports dictators, but simple force and tyranny. Propagandizing is

comparatively easy when the opposition can be effectually muzzled. In the United States presumably, where there are still conflicting propaganda any study of processes has to include a study of the nature of the basic conflicts involved. Realizing this, Clyde R. Miller said at the recent meeting of the Progressive Education Association held at Cleveland, "The question is how can teachers and administrators have their classes deal with these problems without arousing emotions and antagonisms which may affect the school organization adversely?

We believe that there may be an answer to this question by having young people approach controversial problems, not as antagonists or protagonists, but as students of the propagandas which flow from the conflicts these problems represent."

In effect, Professor Miller adds to the usual technique of gathering evidence pro and con on a controversial subject, the necessity of applying the ordinary rules that any good scientist uses to test the sources of the evidence and his own biases toward it. Although there is here the recognition of the basic origin of conflicting propagandas in relationship to our educational system, the implications of this plea must necessarily be carefully considered before we embark on any extensive program of propaganda study.

There are, at least to me, many questions involved in this procedure, a few of which I present. Have we the facilities within our present educational set-up to inaugurate immediately such a program? Have we enough scientifically-minded teachers? Can a thorough study of these very complicated conflicts be made by all our high school students irrespective of intelligence? Are the sources of evidence always so readily available to us? Can we always determine distortion of facts? Are facts isolated from a system of values sufficient criteria for making judgments? Specifically, how are we to determine the ramifications and intricate relation of pressure groups unless an occasional investigation reveals them to us? How are we even to know when their source is artfully disguised? Is it possible for our students and our teachers to engage in a psychoanalytic cleansing? Can we divert our students' or our teachers' emotional drives into a genuine desire for clarity of thought, for solving the problem at hand? How are we to correlate conviction with action? When are we to secure sufficient information on these issues? What changes will have to be made in all our curricula if we attempt by an analytic study of propaganda to reorganize human behavior? Will we be able to counteract the influences of external agencies to whom the student is more closely devoted than he is to his school?

Whether these questions are an-

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swerable or not, there is no doubt that certain types of work, principally concerned with critical thinking, can be engaged in at once. The obvious propaganda devices can easily be shown. Examples of them are too numerous to mention. The testing of evidence through a study of advertisements and speeches is not an insurmountable task and one which is enlivening and revealing. The misuse of such terms as "race" and "Aryan" can be shown. Unwarranted generalization and the use of generic terms are demonstrable. The difference between fact and assertion is a necessity in any kind of teaching which pretends to make students more thoughtful. Obvious distortions of fact can be seen and many channels of communication offer examples of the mishandling of cause and effect relationships. Unrepresentative sampling and unwarranted use of authorities can be clearly indicated. Newspapers and radio programs can be more carefully and realistically scrutinized and the findings of reputable consumer organizations ascertained.

However, the problem of propaganda goes undoubtedly much deeper than all this. Its relationship to the emotional life is close and disturbing. Its correspondence to many standards of value of long standing is known to any social psychologist. Its affinity to our ideals and customs is like the hardened skins of Sir Evening Star. But, we cannot allow these difficulties to postpone forever what is an urgent necessity nor can we permit them to plunge us, perhaps idealistically, but heedlessly into an immediate vortex. Unfortunately, we have no central organization for gathering materials and for studying such questions. We have to depend entirely on studies scattered over the field of educational research and activity. What we need are in-service courses that are not merely descriptive of processes but that are genuine laboratories for the exchange and testing of ideas and materials. We need workshops in which educational theory can be translated into practice, in which teachers can learn by doing. At present, classroom experiment is sporadic and uncontrolled by any criteria; the results available only by chance. The Institute of Propaganda Analysis through its educational division is attempting a noteworthy job in exactly this direction and perhaps is the answer to our need. At any rate, we must secure some type of central agency to work our practical procedures with a problem that is overwhelming us today. Immediate work such as I have sketched can be done but before we march sharply into the battle of propagandas let us establish a supply depot so that there is at least a slight possibility of victory.

SIDNEY MANDELL.
Evander Childs High School.

A LIBRARY PROGRAM FOR FRESHMEN

For the past year the librarians at Abraham Lincoln High School, in addition to their regular lesson on the use of the catalog and the classification of books, have been making a special effort to reach the freshmen. At the beginning of the term, we make arrangements with the English Department for visits to all first term classes. We register them, explain the rules of the library and answer their questions. Then we escort them to the library, where we call their attention to the arrangement of books, the catalog, the vertical file, etc. As the children browse, the alert librarian can discover their special interests and difficulties, and can develop a cordial relationship that will bring mutual pleasure and easier discipline.

For the first book report, the English teacher and librarian can set aside in the library a collection of books for a particular class. With guidance, the pupil is likely to choose a volume he really will enjoy, while meeting the standards set by his teacher. The child who would not come to the library alone especially benefits from this class visit. In many instances, the boys and girls withdraw additional books of their own choice from the regular shelves. Sometimes a teacher may prefer not to set a collection aside, but have his class choose from the open shelves to train them for future independent use of the library stock.

Another method for encouraging reading is for the librarian to go to the classroom with a bookwagon. She may discuss title after title before the whole class, issuing a book to the student who indicates a desire for it. It is advisable to have several copies of a title, in the event that her selling power is very effective. Or, while the group is engaged in some assignment she may call row after row up to the wagon. She asks individuals what they like, and often the pupils recommend books to their classmates. This personal contact makes a child feel it really matters that he borrow a book he will be interested in. And he realizes that books need not be stored in a library but can be carried into a room as a definite part of his class activity.

These overtures on the part of the librarian encourage individuals to come to the library for free reading. It is gratifying to sense the confidence and affection so many of these young readers show and to feel that they are well started as users of the library for the four years of high school that lie ahead of them.

IRMA SCHWEIKART.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

TRAINING IN DEMOCRACY

Hitler, in "Mein Kampf," remarks that a lie if repeated often and forcefully will be accepted by

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the unthinking masses. We have, in this country, witnessed of late propagandists asserting, over the radio and in the press, factual distortions of the past in support of their campaigns of hate and intolerance. These attempts are predicated upon the assumption that the masses either will not want to or will be unable to verify the truth or falsehood of these assertions. To make this situation impossible is a necessary purpose of democratic education.

In Civics II, we teach the problems arising out of the Industrial Revolution together with the steps taken toward their solution. We discover the former through the more orthodox teaching techniques. The class drew upon their personal or their family experiences, the text, novels, moving pictures, plays, the press and radio. It was in the study of the solutions that the class was given the training that should, to a certain extent, negate the lies of unscrupulous propagandists. The class divided into committees of three with a separate problem of investigation. The pupils, although only in their second term, were taught to use the reference rooms of the libraries, including *Readers' Guide* and *The New York Times Index*. Legislation on a particular topic was investigated by one member of the committee while a second investigated and summarized significant criticisms and suggestions for change. A third pupil looked up the arguments in favor of this type of legislation. Presented in the form of oral reports, these tasks encouraged the pupils to question sources and weigh relative authorities. They learned to differentiate between fact and opinion. Most important, they now possess the training that should enable them to verify statements of fact where their acceptance or rejection determines actions or attitudes.

I am under no illusion regarding the possibility of training for democracy in one term of civics. Whatever value there was in the procedure described above can only be fruitful if it is repeated term after term until the skills and attitudes acquired have become deeply ingrained in the pupils of our democracy.

JEROME M. HARTE,
Walton High School.

REVIEWS

THE INTEGRATED SCHOOL

By Leon L. Winslow. McGraw-Hill. $3.30.

Winslow's book, with its inviting format and its dynamic book-jacket, is happily expressive of an era in America, made package and book-jacket conscious by Donald Teague of contemporaneous World Fair fame. The chaste silver and black binding reveals the simplicity in industrial design which is the antithesis of the complexity of American life today. The large, clear, candid photographic, marginless illustrations, many in full color, showing childrens' honest self-expression, gratifyingly, without the benefit of adult editing, and the finely conceived and drawn graphic charts would have intrigued the soul of Comenius, who devised the first picture textbook, *Orbis Pictus*. Comenius believed implicitly in the vital influence of illustrations in the learning process. "Whatever exists in the mind," he said, "must first have existed in the senses." Hughes Mearns, the Apostle of Creative Education, will no doubt also glow as he observes the tangible evidence, offered by these refreshing illustrations, that childhood personality is being happily freed through the ministration of art education, from the tensions and inhibitions of extreme formal education and the grinning spectre of the rattan—freed from the superimposition of adult standards. Teachers might well contemplate the illustrations in this book, dealing with an activity art program, to revitalize their own educational philosophy and objectives. On the page facing each illustration occur pregnant and thought provocative excerpts gleaned from educational thinkers. The frontispiece is explained by this keynote excerpt: "Since the modern curriculum is made up of experiences that are vital and real to the child, art in a school should afford a logical culmination for these experiences." Here stands revealed the spirit of Winslow's volume which apparently aims at orienting the child with reality. One does not read far until he senses that Winslow worships at the shrine of John Dewey who feels that education is living and life itself. Dewey, Bel Geddes, Haggerty, Munro and others constitute a portentous array of flamboyant Cyranos whom Winslow marshalls to help him woo Roxanne, otherwise Lady Public. Winslow, for his part, is strangely and deplorably inarticulate. Of course, Winslow, much to our regret, does not even pretend this book to be a *Mein Kampf* of subject integration through art education, but rather a co-operative effort. This may perhaps explain a number of loose ends and occasional redundancies. There can be too many fingers in the pie and no one succeeds in pulling out the plum of integration. This is made evident in the chapter captioned "Art in a Changing World," which proves to be mainly excerpts from the above mentioned authors strung together none too adroitly nor pertinently, like so many pearls, while the reader strives to discover in this nebulous necklace the elusive pedagogical pearl known as integration of personality for a changing world. The chapter does not very adequately

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trace the characteristics of this kaleidoscopic era. This deficiency especially strikes the reader who has pondered over the chapter on the "Crisis with Culture" in John Dewey's *Old and New Individualism,* or the attributes of the *Machine Age* in Frankl's *New Dimensions,* or the chapter dealing with *Art Today* in Greenan's *Contemporary Civilization.* Among the redundancies may be grouped a seemingly pointless appendix styled *Art Appreciation Notes* which upon closer inspection prove to be *Art History Notes.* The inclusion of these notes might be justified, and the book live squarely up to its title if the *modus operandi* of subject integration functionalized them. The index to verbs and phrases used in preparing written plans seems superfluous. A great improvement might be effected if the space allotted to this verbose upholstery, some twenty-four pages, not to mention a great many brief but tautological book reviews covering a dozen or more superfluous pages, were given over to several detailed type surveys of the traditional subjects explaining clearly how art may become their culminating and integrating experience. Confucius made it a worthy habit never to indulge the student with more than one corner of a subject. Judged by this oriental gauge the book is admirable. It has, however, the impressionistic attribute of suggesting much more of the picture than it paints.

Experts in curriculum construction will look in vain for a discussion of horizontal and vertical integration. They may even decide that the type units offered are not scientific. Consultation of the type units offered by the St. Louis Commission in Social Studies will reveal several of these inadequacies. With all modesty, the reader prefers the Fieldston Plan as outlined and described in Edward Everett's *Challenge to Secondary Education* as pointing definitely to how the student may be oriented through art education.

The social concept of Democracy demands that the road be kept open for talent. Even Napoleon lauded the French Revolution for this desirable outcome. But there's the rub. It was Goethe who felt that whatever frees the spirit is dangerous if controls do not also provide equilibrium. All hail Winslow, whose orientation plan wisely provides directed activity to balance creative activity!

Has America reached its Hellenistic period of spiritual decadence? Was Mencken right when he facetiously characterized this epoch from the art viewpoint as the *Ashcantine Era?* The quality of art constitutes an infallible barometric indication of spiritual health or decay. It is brazenly apparent that art is no longer being led toward the stars of high ideals and spirituality, but rather down the back stairs to the dark dungeons of grossness and materialism. Can Winslow's program produce other Heines to weep because the Venus de Milo is the only thing finished in a hasty world—other young Keatses, who, fired with a passion for beauty, can, at seventeen, learn to translate Virgil's Aeneid into English? Or will the age of speed continue to spew more libertines, more potential disciples of some anti-Democratic ism, more gold-fish swallowers?

More important than a program, which may often serve as a smoke screen for incompetency, is the integrated teacher sold on the idea that "in a Democracy education is the custodian of the peoples' ideals"—American ideals!

MARTIN J. JENNINGS.
Boys' High School.

THE IMPROVEMENT OF READING

By Luella Cole. Farrar and Rinehart. $1.75.

This book will meet the needs of the average classroom teacher who is faced with the all-too-frequent problem of supplying or consructing remedial materials for use with those pupils who need such treatment. At present, there is enough known to make it possible for the teacher to segregate remedial cases with some degree of accuracy. But what most vexes the beginner as well as the veteran in this field is where to get those materials which can be made to function both correctively and constructively in the classroom situation. Dr. Cole's text is not so fruitful here but, for that matter, neither does any other text at present available constitute the *vade mecum* we have been seeking.

For simple, objective statement of the known facts in remedial reading and for lucid exposition of practical concrete techniques this is a valuable handbook. You don't have to be a combination of statistician and philosopher to understand or translate into practice the suggestions here advanced. Definitely not a great book, quite positively a synthetic, scissors and paste job, it has more to say for the classroom teacher than some of those works which have come to be known as "monumental."

There are many omissions here, many inviting vistas just faintly glimpsed, some major problems not touched, a few false or slightly skewed emphases, but it's a book worth looking into if you do (and who actually does not?) teach remedial reading.

A. H. L.

HIGH SCHOOL AND LIFE

By Francis T. Spaulding. Report of the Regents' Inquiry. McGraw-Hill. $3.00.

In this volume of the Regents' Inquiry series, the whole state program of secondary education is appraised very largely in terms of what the high schools are doing to develop social competence in their pupils. What gives this sur-

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vey point and significance is the rather novel attempt to evaluate the results of education as that education manifests itself in the daily out-of-school living of the pupils. Social competence, as defined by Dr. Spaulding, is simply the possession of those functions, skills, attitudes, and appreciations that allow the individual to live richly, usefully, and harmoniously in the contemporary world; to assume the obligations and carry on the duties of citizenship in a democracy, to master the fundamental processes of learning, to desire the best in himself and in his society, to earn a living and realize his highest capacities in the vocation of his choice, to develop his ethical, esthetic, and spiritual faculties beyond the rudiments he has acquired, to live, in short, a full, significant, independent, satisfying life in a changed and changing universe. These are the things that matter to the individual and society.

To determine the nature and extent of such social competence was the basic aim of the survey. Unlike most other appraisals undertaken to ascertain the degree to which educational objectives actually function in the lives of pupils, this one has managed to extricate itself from the morass of scholastic minutiae which almost invariably submerges and strangles the master purpose animating such surveys. Not wholly unmindful of the place which scholarship and the scholarly disciplines play in the whole educational scheme, Dr. Spaulding and his co-workers have succeeded in keeping their visions clear to evaluate some of the larger, imponderable outcomes not usually evoked from statistical norms and other numerical symbols which generally demonstrate with extreme precision very little that is of much importance.

What is perhaps most wholesome in this report is the concern it has shown for the pupils who do not go on to higher institutions of learning, but who must, nevertheless, face the world immediately without being cushioned for the shock, and minus the added training which their more fortunate fellows will get. If it had done nothing more than demonstrate with implacable logic the plight of the non-academic pupil in a system still largely dominated by academic preconceptions of another era, the report would have rendered a service of inestimable value. Not that schoolmen throughout the state have been callously unmoved by the tragic destiny that is overtaking the non-academic. Few problems have received more agonized and, on the whole, more desperately futile scrutiny. But the blunt statement that the schools are still unhappily wedded to the academic ideal and still pursuing, with more zeal than is warranted, purely academic outcomes, will add strength and unity to those forces which have been fighting for a new emphasis on matters that count equally, in this bitter world, with scholarly attainments, in themselves, means to a remote end, not instruments for more intelligent living in a democracy.

In levelling his specific indictments, Dr. Spaulding has chosen not to name any names. This is regrettable, we feel, though the alternative might have proved quite embarrassing. On the horns of this dilemma, Dr. Spaulding seemingly decided to point generally, allowing specific systems and individuals to decide for themselves whether it was time for them to cry, "Peccavi, magister." Unfortunately, under this procedure, many innocents are lashed with the same remorseless finality as the guilty. Publicly, at least, education in general throughout the state falls under this obloquy, even though conspicuous exceptions to so many of Dr. Sapulding's strictures come immediately to mind. The mordant truth of these generalizations seems to us hardly disputable. We feel, however, that it is unfortunate that so many manifest injustices have been wrought in the interests of generalizations of broad and deep-rooted significance. This is no carping exception to the dramatic validity of the report. It is an honest demurrer entered for those who have been struggling valiantly against inertia, ignorance, hysteria, incredible personnel and plant deficiencies, myopic budgeteers, to make real the dream, and right some of the "immedicable woes." They deserved better than they have received at Dr. Spaulding's hands. For even if it seemed more politic to refrain from pinning gold stars on isolated institutions, the profession itself might have justly been recognized for its herculean though not always fruitful efforts to transmit our cultural heritage to its pupils enriched and unimpaired.

The following is but the barest outline of what Dr. Spaulding discovered about the products of our secondary school system. The implications are too varied and strike too deeply athwart each of the separate subject matters for us to encompass in this brief review. What specifically should be done about them is a matter of serious concern for all.

One-fourth of the pupils who are ending their schooling are not fit to take up or carry on the duties of citizenship. This is the judgment of the schools that have produced them, and includes not only delinquents but also those who are judged intellectually and emotionally unfit to assume these civic obligations. As a whole, leaving pupils are seriously deficient in a knowledge of problems, issues, and present day facts with which every intelligent citizen must be conversant if he is to be something more than a mere voter.

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Pupils, in the main, are civically illiterate, uninformed about basic changes in the structure of our government, foreign affairs, basic social concepts, local community problems. They are fundamentally conservative in outlook, and tend to think in terms of catch-words and slogans.

To the principles of democratic living and democratic government, all pupils are ready to render verbal allegiance. But at least one-fourth give no indication of knowing what democracy really means, or what its implications are for personal and social life.

In spite of verbal allegiance to, and knowledge of the democratic processes, pupils are not willing to assume the obligations of responsible citizenship in a democracy. The evidence is clear, says Dr. Spaulding, "that the boys and girls who are on the point of leaving school, whatever they may think of the desirability of certain kinds of action, are reluctant to assume responsibility for civic cooperation, or to commit themselves to action which will involve personal effort or sacrifice." In short, the social conscience, which makes democratic living a reality, seems sadly absent in our pupils. Somewhere in all this talk of democracy, it would appear, the emotions, the mainsprings of human action, seem to have been stifled; a dramatic example of the well-known dictum that education purely in terms of the intellect ultimately depraves and paralyzes the will.

The primitive concepts of good citizenship pupils acquire in school rarely receive any further nurture or attention. No attempt is made either through reading or other educational media to maintain readiness for citizenship or to expand knowledge of civic affairs or interests in important problems. The family, the church, character-building organizations like the Y's or Boy Scouts, exert a very feeble influence in these directions.

For further learning, pupils seem equally unfitted, vague about their plans, uninformed as to sources and materials, their educational plans "strikingly unrealistic if not wholly incapable of fulfillment." A disturbingly large portion, too, leave secondary school without having attained a desirable minimum competence in the basic tool subjects.

Those activities which might in some way lead to further development (reading, radio, movies) are regarded almost unanimously as sources of entertainment, pleasant escape, and are generally on a rather low plane. There seems little hope that through these leisure-time interests the pupils will add one cubit to their stature as citizens or as human beings.

Approximately three-quarters of the graduates are faced with the need for immediate employment. Yet, they either have no vocational plans or have plans completely out of line with their demonstrated abilities and the opportunities for employment. A large percentage have neither immediate nor long-range vocational objectives. Much more disquieting than this widespread planlessness regarding vocations are the fantastic ambitions of the pupils.

Those who do get jobs are not much concerned with the opportunities offered by these jobs. Yet, statements of employers and analyses of wage scales under which these boys and girls work reveals that "more than half . . . will have to leave their present employers if they are to earn enough to marry, live decently, and stay out of debt."

The unemployed leaving pupils spend their time either in part-time schooling not directly related to their needs, in random search for work, or in aimless loafing. This drifting army represents the potential unemployables, the delinquents, the criminals, the dispossessed and the discontented masses—the raw stuff for dictatorships and revolutions.

The most depressing and awesome spectacle is presented by the non-graduates in whose lives the laws of economic and environmental selectivity operate with inexorable regularity. These drop-outs are even less fitted for citizenship than those who remain for four years. And yet they, too, are to become citizens minus even the barest sort of social competence. Few if any out-school agencies will reclaim them. "Clearly," says Dr. Spaulding, "there can be no effective preparation of these pupils for out-of-school citizenship or vocations, or leisure, as long as the present school offerings are their only recourse."

For the superior pupils, the schools seem to have done as little as for the inferior and mediocre. According to Dr. Spaulding, present curricula and teaching procedures fail to make the most of superior pupils. While these future leaders, generally speaking, possess more knowledge than their less able fellows, sadly enough, they do not differ significantly in social attitudes and social competence.

There is some solace, however. Some things we do passing fair. Our pupils do master the English classics. They do acquire an elementary acquaintance with general science and personal hygiene. A fair knowledge of history and civics is somehow imparted to them along with fairly clear ideas of citizens' rights in a democracy and when and where those rights apply. Our pupils are firmly convinced that earning a living is one of the most important tasks of a young person. (Are we wholly responsible for this?) They also believe that schooling has a real value, though they are not particularly clear on this point.

Certain vital areas of social competence (as indicated above) are, however, virtually untouched by

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the present program. Pupils learn little about local community needs and problems. They have little insight into their own vocational and educational possibilities. They are almost wholly devoid of social conscience. They have few reliable standards which which might lead them to a worthy use of leisure time.

Space does not permit an analysis of Dr. Spaulding's pointed, though not universally valid, derogations of the separate subject matter areas. In fine, his criticisms are that they are generally academic, taught without any reference to the out-of-school lives of the pupils, not productive of desirable social competence, largely college preparatory in character, standardized by state syllabi and the Regents' examinations.

Provisions for individual educational guidance are tragically inadequate, Dr. Spaulding finds. High schools, in general, know little of what happens to the pupil beyond the facts implied in school records. They know most about pupils from well-to-do homes who graduate from the college-preparatory curriculum. They know, too, much about delinquents and special problems. They know least about the pupils from poor homes, and about non-graduates. There is no systematic investigation of home backgrounds of pupils, and no systematic knowledge of pupil needs. Programs, at best, are planned in terms of averages, rather than special needs or capacities.

Approximately one-quarter of the high schools (mainly large ones) have adopted some plans for ability grouping. Yet such grouping is seldom accompanied by provision for systematically differentiated curricula or methodology. Few plans for differentiation are designed to meet the needs of the least able pupils. Only a handful of schools have developed courses for bright pupils. The typical high school, in short, Dr. Spaulding concludes, "stands largely aloof." In general, the schools do not systematically see to it that individual boys and girls decide wisely, nor do they undertake in any thoroughgoing fashion, to provide their pupils with the experience and knowledge which alone would make well-considered decisions possible."

We cannot leave this report without mentioning gratefully Dr. Spaulding's masterly attack on the Regents' examinations. It is certain to hasten the triumph of liberalizing forces already at work to make these examinations a somewhat fairer test of what education in this state really does and really ought to do. Much of the sporadic and convulsed criticism of these examinations receives here a firm, dignified, and almost unanswerable statement.

Chapter XIV of the report *Proposals for an Improved Program*, commands the closest attention of every educator. For here, Dr. Spaulding sets up the kind of program which, in his estimation, corrects the defects of the present one, and gives new meaning and direction to the whole movement of educational effort. In schematic form, this is the essence of the program:

A. MAJOR PART OF CURRICULUM

To consist of subjects of study and forms of pupil experience promising fullest preparation for citizenship in broadest meaning of the term.

This basic training must be supplied for all whether college bound or not:

1. Important phase of Ameri- Life.
2. Physical resources of nation.
3. Arts and occupations of America.
4. American institutions.
5. Shaping and direction of public opinion.
6. Origin and significance of major problems.
7. Study of American democracy and the acquisition of an active interest in making it work.

This training is not to be accomplished through books alone but also through:

1. Direct observation of government at work.
2. Study of the ways in which people get along together.
3. Study of local as well as national problems.
4. Giving immediate and realistic experience in dealing with personal and group relationships within the school.

Not enough for pupil to know facts. The school must teach desire for social progress and willingness to make personal sacrifice for justice and the general good.

B. DEVELOPING READINESS FOR OUT-OF-SCHOOL LEARNING

1. See that pupils have sufficient command of basic tool subjects so that they can learn through independent study.
2. See to it that each pupil knows where and how to continue learning after leaving.
   a. For college pupils — choosing appropriate courses and institutions.
   b. For non-college pupils —realistic information about chances for part-time study.

This information best given at time of leaving.

C. USE OF LEISURE TIME

1. Provide teaching which will lead pupils to enjoy best types of recreation open to them.
2. Emphasize the contemporary in literature and the arts.
3. Emphasize the appreciative aspects of the plastic and musical arts.

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4. Develop new techniques and materials especially in the field of radio and the movies.

D. VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

1. Recognize that most high school graduates must get and hold a job.
2. Furnish generalized training in vocational skills — basic operations in various jobs so that the pupil can get a foothold at the bottom of some recognized occupation.
3. Teach pupils something about organized labor and its implications.
4. Train for vocational adaptability rather than for highly specialized skill. Aim at broad rather than specific training.

E. EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE

1. More systematic recognition of individuals' need.
2. Base estimate of needs on thorough knowledge of all phases of pupil life.
3. Use information about pupils as a basis for systematic adaptation of teaching techniques and curricular materials.
4. Give pupils positive, appropriate, and timely educational guidance. The school should take the initiative in seeing that pupils make correct choices.

F. APPRAISAL OF PUPILS' WORK

1. Responsibility for promotion of pupils to be assumed largely by the individual secondary school.
2. Passing of Examinations should be only part of what is demanded of pupil before he is granted a diploma. The present examination system recognizes only formal scholastic success.
3. New type of high school diploma stating what the pupil has gained in school, not "just a record of scholastic motions gone through." New diploma ought to state what the pupil is prepared to do.
1. Enter a specified vocation.
2. Enter a higher institution.
3. Take an acceptable part in out-of-school social group.

"These various proposals as to what every secondary school should do for individual boys and girls are not based on mere idealistic theory. Neither are they based on any sentimental conception of society's debt to young people. They grow directly out of a consideration of the maladjustments of young people under an educational system in which schools pay little attention to individual needs, and of the harm to society as a whole which these maladjustments threaten. The school obviously cannot be the cure-all for social ills. But if it will acquaint itself with its pupils' individual needs, if it will see that each boy and girl chooses an education as much as possible in keeping with his particular abilities, and if it will help pupils who are leaving school to make the best practicable out-of-school adjustments, the school may at least make a direct and positive contribution to the betterment of a social situation which is at present none too happy."

No matter how we may feel about certain sections of the report, and there will undoubtedly be some bitterness aroused by the indiscriminate application of the lash, the report cannot be answered by invective. Its arraignment of the high school system is so basic in its grasp, so crucial in its charges, that nothing short of a radical overhauling of procedure and point of view will quiet the objections it has raised. A convincing brief might be submitted substantially vitiating some of Dr. Spaulding's accusations, but the report in its essential analysis of our present discontent cannot be challenged. It has struck its shafts hard and deep.

As soon as the budget-makers stop bleeding the schools white, educators may be able to attempt to translate Dr. Spaulding's suggestions into flesh and blood realities. And as soon as the schools are taken off starvation rations, they may be able to get for themselves the equipment and trained personnel without which Dr. Spaulding's undeniably vital recommendations must reman paper Utopias. Meanwhile, there is much that can be done to reanimate some of the present moribund entities that pass for syllabi and courses. Something may be done to exorcise some of the academic demons, and to make schooling an experience in immediately significant living. Something, too, may be done to see that every teacher and administrator reads this report, and ponders its personal pertinence.

A. H. LASS.

THE NAZI PRIMER

Translated from the German by Harwood L. Childs. With a Commentary by William E. Dodd. Harper's.

The Nazi Primer is required reading for over seven million Nazi youth in Germany today. Through the medium of this official handbook, Young Germany is being methodically prepared for *Der Tag*. The central idea behind this volume, in the words of former Ambassador to Germany William E. Dodd, is "to make the rising generation worship their chief, and get ready to 'save civilization' from the Jews, from Communism, and from democracy—thus preparing the way for a Nazified world where all freedom of the individual, of education, and of the churches is to be totally suppressed."

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This handbook ought to be read by everyone who wishes to understand the Germany of today and the Germany of tomorrow as it is being fashioned with such malevolently pious cunning out of the distorted and inflamed minds and hearts of the Hitler Jugend.

A. H. L.

THE PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICE OF TEACHING ENGLISH

By R. E. Parker. Prentice-Hall. $2.50.

We have been trying very hard to find some legitimate excuse for the publication of this text, designed (like all others) to lead English teachers out of light into darkness, out of theory into practice. But a careful conning of its pages leaves us mystified. The seasoned teacher knows all that Dr. Parker is saying, and much more of practical import that he does not even mention. The tyro will find nothing here to vivify the sodden methods courses he has suffered through. There is some very high-sounding talk of the English curriculum (almost up-to-date), some tittle-tattle about the teacher and his methods, a fairly sonorous repetition of what it means to read (sweet mystery of type and sense), a clear though trite re-statement of various kinds of reading, a competent though not very thorough exploration of the implications of expressional needs and activities, a vague discourse on sentence patterns, diction, pronunciation, and so forth. A few feeble flutters on creative activity in English, English and magazines, motion pictures and radio, and testing achievement in English, and Dr. Parker leaves the scene to darkness and to me and you.

There is a certain almost unreal quality about this book that makes it seem of another era. The challenges which the modern world poses to the teacher of English, the vast ferment in and out of the classroom—there are few echoes of all this in these tranquil pages. Remedial reading, the non-academically-minded pupil, speech and English, propaganda, modern literature, differentiation for the gifted (to mention only a few of the unsolved problems which daily become more and more vexatious) receive little or no recognition in Dr. Parker's treatment. We submit that a tract for the times which fails to bring these matters into sharp relief has no place on the shelf, even if it reeks of the eternal verities.

A. H. L.

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THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE REGENTS INQUIRY FOR THE COMMERCIAL TEACHER*

I

The Regents Inquiry has been severely criticized in some quarters and highly praised in others. Evidently the report is not as ill-fated as other major surveys in education which were promptly shelved and forgotten. The inquiry has significance in that it is forcing us to revaluate our aims and objectives so that we can determine whether or not we are educating for American life.

My discussion today is the result of a study of the findings and recommendations with regard to business education as found in the volume, *Education for Work*, by Thomas L. Norton. Some of Norton's major recommendations are included in the summary report, *Education for American Life*, by Luther H. Gulick. Norton's study is "an effort to answer these questions: What *are* the secondary schools doing in regard to the problem of vocational adjustment? What *should* they do?" (1)

I think we must approach this study with the following questions in mind: Do the findings apply to New York City? If not, what is our local situation? If the findings do apply, do we agree with the recommendations? If we do agree with the recommendations, what steps must be taken to achieve the goals set?

In *High School and Life*, by Francis T. Spaulding, certain recommendations are made which, if followed, will help develop "social competence." Spaulding makes it clear that his own recommendations are based on desirable practices which his investigating committee found in operation somewhere in the state. Can we assume then that Norton's recommendations with respect to commercial education are also based upon practicable plans already severely tested? Are we justified in criticizing the investigators, who are not attached to or associated with the secondary schools of the state, for presenting Utopian plans? In other words, to what extent are the recommendations for commercial education being practiced? Dr. Harold G. Shields, Associate Professor of Business Education, University of Chicago, is responsible for reporting on commercial education.

* At the meeting of the Accounting and Law Teachers' Association Section of the Commercial Education Association of the City of New York and Vicinity, Saturday, May 20, 1939.

1 Thomas L. Norton, *Education for Work*, Regents Inquiry, 1939, p. xii.

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II

Steps Used in Accumulating Data Used to Determine General Scholastic Ability, Vocational Plans, Adjustment and Social Competence

A—Tests were administered to measure the students' *Social Competence*, and mental ability. (1)

Tested in Spring of 1936 in 62 general high schools

9th Grade	3,626
10th "	4,676
11th "	3,143
12th "	10,487
Postgraduates	653

Tested in May 1937, in 12 vocational schools

	22,584
9th Grade	219
10th "	470
11th "	645
12th "	1,023
Postgraduates	69
	2,426

B—Visits to the schools were made by the investigators to determine whether or not the test results were dependable. (2)

C—Individual reports were obtained on tested pupils who left school between June 1, 1936 and May 31, 1937. In addition to information on the students' social and economic background," . . . the report form asked the school to answer two questions of vital importance. The first of these questions had to do with the pupil's vocational preparation: "At the time this pupil left school, could the school have recommended him for any type of full-time employment which would have permitted self-support, with confidence that he would be reasonable successful at this employment?" The second question concerned the pupil's preparation for social living: "At the time this pupil left school, could the school have recommended him as ready to participate responsibly, sensibly, and honestly both in the informal non-vocational phases of adult community life and in the more formal duties of citizenship?" (1)

Reports were received for 10,321 students representing 61 schools from among the 22,584 pupils tested in the general high schools, and for ? (2) tested in 4 of the vocational schools.

42,770 reports were received on untested students including 2,977 from the specialized vocational schools. (3)

D—Interviews were conducted with students tested who withdrew from schools between the spring of 1936 and September 30, 1936, and who had been out of school from six to eleven months; interviews were also conducted with the students' employers or other adults acquainted with them. The purpose of this part of the investigation was to determine the students' out-of-school activities in vocation, education and recreation. (4) Norton remarks that in the case of vocational students it was impossible "to compare the test scores and interview results, since the testing program for vocational schools was given in May 1937, rather than in June, 1936, when the pupils of the general high schools were tested. Spaulding points out that the study of vocational adjustment differed from the other special investigations because of the fact that it relied rather upon the observation and judgment of specialists than upon statistical evidence, and made extensive use of general, social and economic data as contrasted with information about definitely identified individual pupils. (1)

III

You notice, then, that the findings in Norton's, *Education for Work*, are based on the judgment and observation of specialists. I will now present to you the major

Number of Interviews

		Graduates	*Withdrawals*	*Totals*
General High Schools	Boys	569	196	765
	Girls	711	165	876
		1,280	361	1 1,641
Specialized Vocational Schools	Boys	130	132	262
	Girls	30	32	62
		160	164	324
	Totals	1,440	525	1,965

[1] Francis T. Spaulding, *High School and Life*, Regents - Inquiry, 1938, pp. 339-4.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 342.
[1] *Ibid.*, p. 346.
[2] Editor's note: Number not given by Spaulding.
[3] *Ibid.*, p. 347.
[4] *Ibid.*, pp. 348 and 350.
[1] Spaulding, *op. cit.*, pp. 360-1.

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recommendations and, wherever possible, the pertinent supporting data. The recommendations are conveniently grouped under the following general headings:

1. The *pupils* to be served.
2. The *objectives* of the program.
3. Types and nature of the *courses.*
4. The types of *schools* where the program should be offered.
5. The role of the *State Education Department* in the development of the program.

PUPILS TO BE SERVED

The students for whom vocational education is to be provided are to be served on three levels: Level I is to take them from the 7th through the 9th year; Level II, through the 12th year; and Level III, beyond the 12th year.

Level I

In Level I, *all* students, even the academic, are to be offered an introductory survey course which would provide them with the opportunity to explore the training required for the major vocational fields in the secondary school program. In addition, to aid the pupil in making a wise selection of the type of course to be followed, a testing and guidance program is recommended. The bases for this recommendation are as follows:

1—Students who withdraw from the general high school were found to be "only hazily informed as to required aptitudes and training, possibilities for advancement, salary scales, working conditions, or opportunities for employment." (1)

2—Lack of guidance programs for general high school students.

3—School curricula bear slight relationship to occupations followed after leaving school.

At present, there is no scientific method used in selecting students for the commercial course. There is little use made of aptitude testing. According to the reports of principals, very few applicants for the commercial course are rejected. As a result, "teachers in some New York schools estimate that as high as 50% of the students in these courses are innately unfitted for the work." (2) The following reasons are given as to why students must be enrolled by the schools in the commercial courses:

1—Most schools offer only two courses — the academic and commercial—and students of low intelligence elect the commercial.

2—Other vocational courses are not available.

3—Parental pressure is brought to bear.

4—The pupils dislike the stigma of a grade; for instance, girls will not go into the service trades.

Implications:

To what extent will this vocational survey course affect the elementary business training course not offered in the ninth year? Are we agreed that the choice of the major occupational pursuits of the students should be deferred until the beginning of the tenth year? Do we agree that 50% of the commercial students in New York City are innately unfitted for the work?

Level II

Eighty per cent of students enrolled in the high schools of New York State do not go to college. Every pupil whose formal schooling ends with graduation from a secondary school should leave with training which will fit him to hold some kind of job.

On Level II, students would begin specific initial vocational courses. It is recommended that admission to these courses be restricted to those who, while in Level I, show an aptitude and an interest for the work selected.

We notice, on the whole, that the general, the commercial, and the vocational industrial students, are not being trained for the jobs which they obtain when they leave the secondary school. It was found that less than 30% of the graduates of the commercial courses and less than 63% of the graduates of vocational industrial courses were employed in jobs for which they were specifically trained.

Since the problem of vocational adjustment is so important, the investigators feel that secondary schools ought to be responsible for students until they reach the age of nineteen.

Implications:

Norton states that vocational educators, who are able to place 63% of their graduates in jobs for which they are trained, are interested in supervising commercial education because they feel they can raise the record of placements of commercial students from less than 30%. Is the sampling used in arriving at these percentages adequate? In commenting on the 3,122 graduates of vocational courses who were interviewed, 1,955 of whom were placed in jobs for which they were trained, Norton says, "that if this total is analyzed and compared with the working population in any given occupation, the numbers involved appear insignificant. The industrial courses should have a greater percentage of placements than the commercial courses." (1) "The low percentage in the commercial field was probably due to the large numbers involved." (2) This would seem to imply the operation of the law of supply and demand.

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[1] Norton, *op. cit.*, p. 173.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 147.

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 150.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 204.

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On Level I, students are to get a broad view of the entire vocational field. On Level II, all students are to get a broad general education; those who terminate their training on this level are to be given training for some initial job. Level III suggests a plan of advanced training in vocational and technical institutes as part of the total program for secondary education. The vocational institutes are planned only for those "who have demonstrated their vocational competence under adult working conditions." (3) The technical institutes are planned for "students who have successfully completed grade 12 and who show a definite aptitude for semi-professional training." (4) The implications of this program will be discussed later.

OBJECTIVES OF THE PROGRAM

Level I

The introductory survey courses should have the following objectives:

1—To "acquaint pupils with the major vocational opportunities and requirements of important occupational fields." (4)

2—To "help each pupil analyze his interests and abilities." (4)

3—To provide each student with "a sufficiently wide range of such experience as to ensure an intelligent choice." (4)

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 142.
[4] *Ibid.*, p. 143.

Orientation and exploration are desired, not the devleopment of vocational skills.

Implications:

To what extent does the course in economic citizenship, which is part of the commercial curriculum, serve to acquaint pupils with vocations? To what extent have we succeeded in helping students recognize the limits of their capacities?

If we are agreed that this initial survey course is desirable, what types of experiences should be provided for in the commercial fields?

Level II

There is a variety of economic and social factors which affects the vocational adjustment of students who leave school. Some of these factors presented are the nature of modern industry, population trends, geographic shifts, occupational distribution and trends, changing economic wants, technological developments, and changes in skill requirements.

Because of the changes in skill requirements, the student should not receive a highly specialized training, but should be so trained that he will be able to make his initial vocational adjustment and adapt himself to changing conditions.

Initial vocational courses should help the student

1. to develop desirable work habits and the ability to cooperate,
2. to acquaint himself with major vocational processes in his field as an aid to proper adjustment,
3. to gain a knowledge of conditions of work, wages paid, and opportunities for advancement,
4. to gain a knowledge of the type of training necessary for advancement,
5. to secure initial, marketable skills which will help him obtain a job as a beginner.

It is recognized that the initial skill training should be offered in that year when the pupil is ready to leave school. This, of course, includes drop-outs.

Implications:

With what degree of success can we predict just when students are going to leave school? What provisions can the school make for drop-outs during this last year of training?

Are not objectives 2, 3, and 4, applicable to Level I?

What initial skills in the commercial fields should be developed in the schools? We must not be criticized for wasting time developing those skills which can be acquired on the job. This points to a major recommendation of the report which will be indicated later; namely, the need for job analysis as the basis for courses to be covered.

Level III

"The courses in the vocational and the technical institutes should be designed to furnish (1) 'upgrading' vocational education for young people who have demonstrated initial competence in a general vocational field, and (2) preparation for vocations which require a more extended period of initial schooling than can be provided prior to the end of grade 12, but which demand less training than that offered by four-year institutions of higher education." (1)

Implications:

In preparing students for vocational adjustment, we must recognize the fact that economic conditions are such that the parents of our students cannot afford to allow their children to remain in school too long to acquire those skills which will enable them to get decent jobs. Under the plan proposed by the inquiry, students in Level II get only their initial training in the secondary school. Therefore, parents will make sacrifices to send their children to private schools where their children can get the advanced training in a much shorter period of time. Spaulding criticizes severely some of the proprietary schools for exploiting our public school graduates; yet how can we blame them when because of financial stringency there is so definite a demand for their services? (2)

[1] Norton, *op. cit.*, p. 147.
[2] Spaulding, *op. cit.*, pp. 38-9.

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It has been proved that there is a lapse of time between leaving school and initial job placement. Therefore there may be some value in this plan for post high school training in that provision is made to keep these students occupied. We must remember, on the other hand, that the vocational and technical institute courses will really serve the better students who are most likely to obtain positions first.

Should we reject the proposal for the introduction of vocational institutes, or should we accept it, and, at the same time, suggest that training in these schools be given on a scholarship basis? Again, even if scholarships should be offered, with the present tendency to cut school budgets, how can we expect funds to be provided? Another alternative is to allow industry to carry or share part of the burden of the cost. To expect business to help support this plan is not asking too much because many of the larger business firms are already training their own junior employees for advancement. Moreover, if business has a financial stake in these enterprises, educators could also count on an even more active and intelligent coöperation in planning the course of study.

Further Obligations of the Schools

As to the certification of their graduates, "17 out of 58 principals reported that at least 60% of their pupils were not employable at the going rate for beginners." (1)

Strictly vocational and industrial schools consider placement and follow-up as part of their function. This, according to Norton, is not true of business education in New York State. There is practically no evidence of organized follow-up of commercial graduates or dropouts.

He therefore recommends that, in addition to proper guidance and vocational training, the school have the following obligations:

1—to certify that the student possesses the fundamental skills necessary for initial employment and that he can adjust himself vocationally.

2—to aid the student in placement.

3—to follow-up his activities for at least 8 months or until he is 19 years of age.

The secondary school is expected to coöperate with other agencies such as the New York State Junior Employment Service.

The follow-up work will enable the school to determine whether the student is properly adjusted, whether his training has helped him on the job, whether the student needs additional training and whether the school program needs revision.

Implications:

Does the granting of a commercial diploma by a general high school in New York City certify that the student possessing it is trained for an initial job and can adjust himself vocationally? What success has been realized by the school placement officers? Have these officers ever published, in addition to tabulations of their success in placements, analyses of employers' complaints and rejections? How many follow-up studies have been made in New York City as a basis for determining the content of our courses of study? Should we train our students in their obligation to the State and to themselves in conscientiously answering a follow-up questionnaire?

[1] Norton, *op. cit.*, p. 43.

Types and Nature of the Courses

Level I

Introductory survey courses are suggested in the following fields: (1) agriculture, (2) industrial, (3) homemaking and domestic and personal service, and (4) business occupations, including the clerical and distributive fields. Every pupil should take a sufficient number of these courses, in order to insure an intelligent choice of his subsequent work" (1)

"For pupils interested in business education, a general course called elementary economic training, suitable for both business and non-business students, should be offered in the ninth grade. This course should be largely descriptive and expository in character. It should not deal with economic theory, but should be an elementary analysis of the business structure and a study of those business relationships common to all types of business activity. Particularly, it should include understandings related to the price system, money management, and generalizations, basic to marketing, finance, labor, risk, and production.

"The elementary economic training course probably should not be a tryout course, since most of these courses in business have been largely tryout courses in clerical work. A tryout course in clerical work would be a dubious service. It is difficult to get tryout experience in stenographic work by studying shorthand theory for a few weeks." (1)

[1] Norton, *op. cit.*, pp. 208-9.

Level II

"Courses in vocational education for pupils on Level II should be offered within each of the general vocational fields mentioned in connection with the discusssion of the introductory survey courses. A course could not cover the whole of any one of these fields, but it should not be so narrow and highly specialized that the pupil cannot use his training to advantage in more than one type of employment." (1)

"In order to offer one marketable

[1] *Ibid.*

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skill in business education, the following courses might be offered during the eleventh and twelfth grades: elementary filing, general clerical practice, routine selling, typewriting, switchboard operation, receptionist, etc. It is assumed that the student will not be certified as vocationally adjusted until he has had the basic business subjects plus one of the marketable skill courses. Owing to the increasing importance of such lines of activity, more attention should be given to the service occupations." (1)

Level III

"Courses on Level III, namely, the advanced vocational and technical courses, should be offered in any of the broad fields listed for Levels I and II. For example, the vocational institute might give intensive courses in the business field, in such things as junior accountancy, small-store management, selling which involves knowledge of products and processes, machine bookkeeping, calculating machine operation, and stenographic training." (1)

" . . . the technical institute should offer courses of a semi-professional or semi-technical character. In business education, for example, courses could be offered in such semi-professional pursuits as secretarial work, office management, salesmanship involving technical knowledge, buying, credit management, and other types of financial work." (2)

[1] *Ibid.*

Basic Principles

According to the investigators, the basic program in business education must be a curriculum in economic education organized so that there is some opportunity for sequential growth from grade to grade, available to all students. In addition, the solution, so far as vocational business education is concerned, will come through the application of rigorous vocational standards and the probable establishment of post high school technical work in the field.

Implications:

Do our standards of achievement in the vocational commercial courses meet the standards set by business?

The investigators make the following criticism of the commercial program in New York State:

1—There is evidence of overlapping. (3)

2—The courses are inflexible. (1)

3—Courses in commercial education are practically the same all over the state. (2)

4—"So far as can be determined, comparatively little research is being conducted in terms of job analysis, long-run trends, or searching examinations of the clerical labor market." (3)

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 213.
[3] *Ibid.*, p. 209.
[1] *Ibid.*, p. 154.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 155.

Advisory Councils

These conditions have already been recognized. Even now there are in existence advisory councils of business men whose purpose it is to investigate local conditions. They were set up by law in 1928 to work with the industrial educators. The setting up of advisory councils is recommended where *any* vocational program is offered.

Implications:

(The writer feels that no comment on the nature of the courses is necesssary as they speak for themselves.)

To return to the criticisms, how can commercial educators eliminate overlapping when we cannot deny that it exists? For example, we teach, or attempt to teach, the 60-day method for finding interest in the eighth grade, in the second term of elementary business training, in commercial arithmetic, and in bookkeeping.

The commercial courses are inflexible; is this due to the rigidity of the Regents' examinations? Recommendations have been made that the latter be eliminated. Provided this is done shall we not then be obliged to conduct job analyses to set up new courses of study based on needs and aptitudes?

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 218.

Types of Schools

The inquiry suggests that through grade twelve the vocational courses may be given in the cosmopolitan high school since they are an integral part of the secondary program. At any rate, institute courses may well be developed in separate schools.

Implications:

During the past few years, the City of New York has set up a number of specialized vocational secondary schools. These schools, being limited in number, have been unable to offer their facilities to many of the students who would like to attend them, and are at present being taken care of in the general high schools.

Do we agree with the recommendation that vocational courses be given in the cosmopolitan high school? Shall we continue under the present plan whereby commercial education is offered both in the general and in the specialized vocational schools in New York City? Are we being fair to the students in the general high schools when the vocational schools are able to place their students more readily because of the types of training, guidance services and improved facilities offered? ***To determine the role each type should play is an immediate problem.***

The Role of the State Education Department

One of the roles of the State

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Education Department is to conduct research. In addition to the work of the state department, we have a Bureau of Research, Reference and Statistics in New York City which could very well conduct some of the investigations enumerated, provided funds are made available.

IV

There is no doubt that the inquiry is rendering a definite service in the field of vocational training in focusing the attention of the public on the absolute need for job analysis, follow-up studies, and most important, a sensible guidance program.

A few things of interest have happened since the inquiry was published:

1—In 1938, the City's vocational schools placed 85% of their graduates, 72% finding jobs in their own trades. What can be said of commercial education in the general high schools?

2—On April 26, 1939, according to a report in the *New York Sun*, a comprehensive follow-up study of 20,000 high school graduates was begun by the Board of Education under Assistant Superintendent Moskowitz. One of the purposes of this study is to determine whether students are finding jobs for which they are being trained.

3—On May 19, 1939, the *New York Times* reported that new tests were being administered to 25,000 students in the junior high schools to determine pupils' aptitudes.

4—Superintendent Ernst has suggested that the High School Teachers Association, The First Assistants Association, and the High School Principals Association study the Regents' Examinations with a view toward their possible elimination or modification. (A few years ago a survey of the Regents' Examinations conducted by the High School Teachers Association showed that commercial teachers favored retaining the Regents, 2:1.)

5—It would seem that as a result of the Regents' Inquiry the State Education Department issued the following statement on October 15, 1938: "To Superintendents and Principals of Secondary and Part-Time Schools:

The State Education Department suggests that you may wish to offer complete vocational business courses on the 13th year or post high school level to serve the needs of persons in the following classifications:

a. Graduates of high schools who have taken partial business courses but who now desire to take an intensive vocational finishing course;

b. Graduates of high schools who did not study business subjects, but who now desire to prepare for business vocations;

c. Graduates of high school business departments who have been unable to obtain positions and who wish, therefore, to improve their ability and increase their business skills;

d. Graduates of high schools who at present are employed but who desire to prepare for office and store positions which require additional skill and ability." (1)

V

On the basis of this report I should like to suggest that this association form a committee to study the problems presented (plus many of the findings which I didn't have time to mention) to answer the questions posed: namely,

DO THE FINDINGS APPLY TO NEW YORK CITY? IF NOT, WHAT IS OUR LOCAL SITUATION? IF THE FINDINGS DO APPLY, DO WE AGREE WITH THE RECOMMENDATIONS? IF WE DO AGREE WITH THE RECOMMENDATIONS, WHAT STEPS MUST BE TAKEN TO ACHIEVE THE GOAL SET?

In addition, I should like to suggest that the association make itself responsible for the development of a program of remedial arithmetic in the secondary schools similar to the program of remedial reading now being conducted. I make this proposal in the light of the following statement by Spaulding: "Beyond preparation for citizenship the secondary schools need to concern themselves with their pupils' readiness for continued learning. As a part of its basic curriculum *every high school ought to provide whatever teaching of reading and arithmetic may be necessary to give all its pupils enough command of the tools of learning* . . ." (2)

MORRIS S. GOLLER.

Washington Irving High School.

[1] The University of the State of New York, The State Education Department, Albany, Division of Vocational Education, Bureau of Business Education, *Bulletin No.* 11, October 15, 1938.

[2] Spaulding, *op. cit.*, pp. 265-6.

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TESTING THE ABILITY OF PUPILS TO READ IN MATHEMATICS

In the April number of the Bulletin of High Points in Will Scarlet's eloquent plea to teachers of mathematics to incorporate the reading technique into their teaching of mathematics, reference was made to the attempts in this direction at the George Washington High School during the past five years.

There is no doubt that one of the chief causes of failure in mathematics in the high schools is the inability of the pupils to read mathematical material, whether consisting of mathematical symbols or of English statements relating to mathematics. This weakness in turn may be accounted for in part by the fact that very little reading, if any, is used in the vast majority of mathematics classrooms. In her eagerness to cover the ground, the teacher does all the teaching while the pupils do relatively little learning in the classroom. The teacher hopes that the pupils will be able to study the lesson by themselves at home several hours later, after an interval during which the pupils may have been exposed to several other subjects and to the normal distractions of a child's day. The home work assignment, which is supposed to aid the pupil in learning the lesson, usually consists of some exercises to be written. If the pupil finds difficulty with any of them, he tries to recall the teacher's demonstration in class or he refers to his notes. If this procedure fails, he gives up and brings a blank paper to class. Very few of our pupils refer to the text for help, and, if they do, they cannot get very far, because they are not trained to read the mathematical material even in the elementary textbooks.

I believe that the teaching of mathematics in the high schools can be improved immeasureably through the use of the textbook in the classroom, a procedure which would require the pupil to study through reading under the guidance of the teacher. The pupil should be made less dependent upon the teacher and more dependent upon himself and upon his ability to interpret the printed page. We have been attempting to develop this procedure in our mathematics classrooms here for the past several years. The process has been a slow one because it takes time to train teachers, whether of little or long experience, to readjust to a new technique the teaching procedure to which they have been accustomed since their own school days as pupils.

One way of inducing teachers to incorporate 'new things' into their teaching is to introduce these 'new things' gradually into the department examinations. And so, in order to test the ability of the pupils to read and study new material by themselves from the printed page, and in order to evaluate the effectiveness of the emphasis placed in the classroom upon developing this ability, our uniform examinations have from term to term contained in the various grades questions like the following:

MATHEMATICS

The purpose of this sheet is to see how well you can learn some mathematics by yourself. Read the following material very carefully and answer the various questions in the spaces provided.

Since $2(a + b) = 2a + 2b$ then $2a + 2b$ is the same as $2(a+b)$.

Since $3(r - s - t) = 3r - 3s - 3t$, then $3r - 3s - 3t$ can be changed to $3(r-s-t)$.

Note than in $2a + 2b$ each term can be divided by the common factor of 2.

The number 2 in $2a + 2b$ is called the *common monomial factor.*

Likewise, in $3r - 3s - 3t$ each term can be divided by the common factor 3.

The number 3 in $3r - 3s - 3t$ is called the common monomial factor.

Similarily:

$4x + 4y =$
$(?)\ (x + y)$ .....

$4x + 4y + 4z =$
$(?)(x + y + z)$ .....

$2sr - 2st = 2s(?)$ .....

$x^3 - 2x^2 - x = x(?)$ .....

Rule:

To remove a common monomial factor from a polynomial (like the above expressions):

1. Divide each term of the polynomial by it.
2. Write the monomial in front of parentheses which enclose the quotent.

Remove the common monomial factor in each of the following:

1. $5a + 5b =$ .....
2. $7x - 7y =$ .....
3. $ax + ay =$ .....
4. $rs - rt =$ .....
5. $3x + 3 =$ .....
6. $2a + 4 =$ .....
7. $x^2 - x =$ .....
8. $5mw - 5mz =$ .....
9. $cd + cdx =$ .....
10. $(pi)r^2 - (pi)a^2 =$ .....

MATHEMATICS 2

In solving a pair of equations like

$3a + 2b = 10$
$5a + 6b = 14$

containing two unknowns, you have been taught to eliminate one of the unknowns by either addition or

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subtraction and then to find the value of the other unknown by substitution. In extending the method to a set of *three equations* with *three unknowns*, the work is as follows:

1. Reduce the set of three equations with three unknowns to a pair of equations with two unknowns by
   a. eliminating one of the unknowns from two of the three equations by the method of addition or subtraction, and then
   b. eliminating the same unknown by combining the third equation with either one of the two equations used already.
2. Solve the two resulting equations for the two unknowns involved.
3. Obtain the value of the third unknown by substituting the two values already found in any one of the three original equations.
4. Check the result by substituting in all three of the given equations.

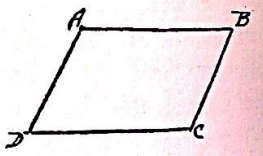
Using the method described here, find the values of x, y, and z in:

$$x + y - z = 3$$
$$x + y + z = 7$$
$$3x - 2y + z = 2$$

MATHEMATICS 3

The following paragraphs contain material that you have not had in class, but which depends upon things you have already learned. Read it very carefully and see how well you can understand it so that you may be able to answer the various questions.

A. A figure bounded by four straight lines (see the diagram below, in which both pairs of opposite sides are parallel is called a *parallelogram*. By *opposite sides* is meant the sides that are not adjacent, AB and AD are adjacent sides. AD and DC are adjacent sides. Complete the following statements:



(1) In this diagram, AB is parallel to .....

(2) Also, ... is parallel to .....

B. The line which joins a pair of opposite vertices is called a *diagonal*. This parallelogram has .....diagonals namely ..... and .....

Draw diagonal BD. You now see two triangles, ABD and BDC.

It is obvious that these two triangles are congruent.

Prove that the triangles are congruent.

C. Since the triangles are congruent, certain parts of the parallelogram are equal because they are corresponding parts of the congruent triangles.

Name these equal parts:

1. .....equals.....
2. .....equals.....
3. .....epuals.....

Prove also that angle B equals angle D.

D. Angles A and C are referred to as a pair of *opposite angles* of the parallelogram. Name another pair of opposite angles.

AB and DC are a pair of *opposite sides* of the parallelogram. Name another pair of opposite sides.

So far you have proven an important fact about the sides and the angles of the parallelogram. State this fact in a good English sentence.

E. You have learned certain facts about a parallelogram in paragraphs A, B, C, D, first by definition and then through a proof. You will now apply these facts in the following exercises:

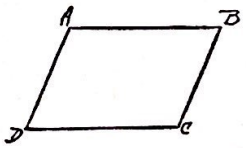
Recall: 1. The definition of parallelogram. (Paragraph A)

2. The items concerning the opposite sides and the angles of a parallelogram. (Paragraphs B,C,D.)

Exercise 1

Given: ABCD is a parallelogram.

To prove: Angle A is a supplement of angle D.



Statements *Proof* *Reasons*

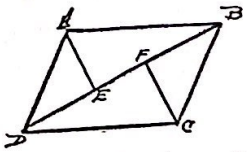
(Note: This prof can be completed in two steps, but use as many as you please.)

Exercise 2

Given: Parallelogram ABCD Diagnol BD

AE ⊥ DB and CF ⊥ DB

To Prove: AE = FC



Statements *Proof* *Reasons*

Exercise 3

Prove that the diagonals of a parallelogram bisect each other.

(Draw the diagram. State what is given and what you are to prove and write out the proof in detail.)

INTERMEDIATE ALGEBRA

The purpose of this sheet is to see how well you can learn some mathematics by yourself. Read carefully the solution of the following

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set of equations. Under the word *Reasons*, in the space provided, enter a statement explaining how each step of the solution was obtained.

Given the equations:

	Reasons
$x^2 + y^2 = 25$	
$y - x = 1$	

Solution:

(1) $y = x + 1$
(2) $x^2 + (x + 1)^2 = 25$
(3) $x^2 + x^2 + 2x + 1 = 25$
(4) $2x^2 + 2x - 24 = 0$
(5) $x^2 + x - 12 = 0$
(6) $(x + 4)(x - 3) = 0$
(7) $x = -4, x = 3$
(8) $y = -4 + 1, y = 3 + 1$
(9) $y = -3, y = 4$

Check the solution using the values

$x = -4$ and $y = -3$

Check the solution using the values

$x = 3, \quad y = 4$

Solve the following set of equations by yourself:

$$x - y = 2$$
$$x^2 + y^2 = 52$$

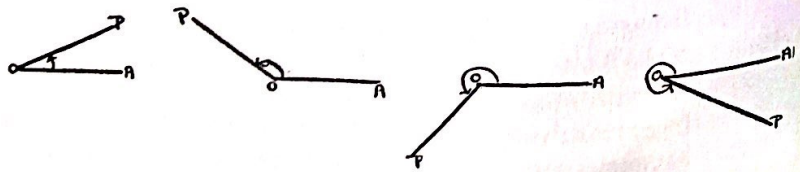
TRIGONOMETRY

Read the following paragraphs very carefully and study their content. The purpose of this sheet is to see how easily you can learn by yourself. Then answer the question at the end in the spaces provided for the purpose.

In your work in plane geometry you were concerned with acute, right obtuse, and straight angles. In this course so far you have met only acute and right angles. You are now going to learn about angles of all values up to 360°.

Think of an angle as being generated by a line segement rotating about a fixed point, that is, line OP turning about point O from the initial position OA to any one of the positions shown in the accompanying diagrams. The arrowheads indicate the magnitude of the angles. It is convienent to keep OP the same length throughout this discission. It is evident that the path of point P, as OP rotates from the initial position OA around again to OA, is a circle with center O and radius OP.

In this circle (an appropriate diagram accompanies this paragraph) picture the horizontal diameter RS and the diameter MN perpendicular to RS. The circle is then said to be divided into *four quadrants*, numbered as follows: the upper right hand quadrant is I, the upper left hand quadrant is II, the lower left hand quadrant is III, and the lower right hand quadrant is IV. An angle is said to belong to the



quadrant in which the rotating line stops.

Complete each of the following statements:

1. An angle of 35° lies in quadrant .....
2. An angle of 115° lies in quadrant .....
3. An angle of 85° lies in quadrant .....
4. An angle of 313° lies in quadrant .....
5. An angle of 200° lies in quadrant .....
6. An angle of 191° 17′ lies in quadrant .....
7. If x is an acute angle, then angle $(180 - x)°$ lies in quadrant .....
8. If x is an acute angle, then angle $(360 - x)°$ lies in quadrant .....
9. If x is an acute angle, then angle $(180 + x)°$ lies in quadrant .....
10. An angle in quadrant III contains a number of degrees that lies between ..... degrees and ..... degrees.

ADVANCED ALGEBRA

The purpose of this sheet is to see how well you can learn some mathematics by yourself. Read the following explanatory material very carefully and answer the questions below in the spaces provided.

You have learned that mathematics is a language of symbols, and that the symbols used, such as +, −, ×, ÷, 5, etc., greatly simplify the solution of problems. Another convenient symbol which we sometimes use in solving systems of linear equations is the *determinant*. A square array of quantities with a vertical line on each side is called a *determinant*. For example,

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{vmatrix}$$

is a determinant of the *second order*, since there are two rows and two columns. Again

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

is a determinant of the *third order* since there are three rows and three columns.

The symbol

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{vmatrix}$$

means $a_1b_2 - b_1a_2$ which is called the expansion of the determinant. Note that the product of a_1 and b_2 in the principal diagonal, beginning at the upper left, is positive, while the product of b_1 and a_2 in the other diagonal, beginning at the upper right, is negative. The quantities a_1, b_1, and the like are called the *elements* of the determinant.

Illustrative example: Find the value of

$$\begin{vmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 3 & -6 \end{vmatrix} = (2 \cdot -6) - (3 \cdot 4)$$
$$= -12 - 12 \text{ or } -24.$$

Exercise: Expand and find the value of:

(1) $\begin{vmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 6 & 8 \end{vmatrix}$ (2) $\begin{vmatrix} -5 & 4 \\ -3 & 6 \end{vmatrix}$

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A determinant of the third order like the one mentioned above is expanded by taking the products as follows:

$$a_1b_2c_3 + b_1c_2a_3 + c_1b_3a_2 - c_1b_2a_3 - b_1a_2c_3 - a_1b_3c_2.$$

Thus $\begin{vmatrix} 2 & 3 & 5 \\ 4 & -2 & 6 \\ 3 & 2 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 2(-2)2 + 3(6)(3) + 5(2)(4) - 5(-2)3 - 3(4)(2) - 2(2)(6)$

$= -8 + 54 + 40 + 30 - 24 - 24 = 68.$

Exercise: Expand and find the value of:

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \qquad \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 1 & 2 \\ 4 & -3 & 2 \end{vmatrix}$$

How successful we have been in this attempt to develop the reading technique in the teaching of mathematics, it is difficult to say. We have analyzed each term the response of the pupils to the new questions on the examinations and we have been impressed by the improvement from term to term. However, we are not prepared to express this improvement quantitatively. In the classrooms also the use of the reading technique is more noticeable. The teachers who at first were opposed to its introduction have gradualllly adopted it to a certain extent. We feel, however, that emphasis on reading ability in one department alone, outside the English department, is not sufficient to develop this ability in the pupils. The reading technique in the teaching of all subjects is necessary.

JOSEPH B. ORLEANS.

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SCHOOL LIBRARIANS ARE TEACHERS

To any fully informed person it is evident that the modern school librarian is a teacher. Mark Hopkins often has been quoted as saying "The ideal college consists of a log of wood with an instructor at one end and a student at the other," and this informal teaching situation is the one which prevails in our school libraries where the students are dealt with as individuals. It is a far cry from the early days of librarianship when the librarian sat behind her desk knitting and occasionally stamped a book on request, to the busy scene which meets the eye in the high school library of today. One sees students everywhere—that is usually the first impression, as the busy groups clustered about the tables meet the eye. Other students are at the shelves selecting or consulting books, some are using the card catalog, and still others stand around the desk getting books stamped — not by the librarian, however, but by student assistants who do this sort of clerical work. The librarian is out on the floor with the students, guiding this pupil to just the right book to meet his interests or needs, teaching this pupil to use the card catalog to locate the book he wants, showing someone else how to use the encyclopedia or the Readers' Guide, or helping another pupil to decide just what chapters of a book to use for a history book report. This is individualized teaching, long regarded as the ideal, and really realized in the school library of today.

The need of education and training to carry on this type of specialized work was recognized early. Just as increased scholarship and training has been required of the modern classroom teacher, so there has been a steady rise in the cultural and professional requirements for school librarians. With teachers, as with librarians, a high school education was the first requirement. Then it was realized that teachers needed professional training, and first a two-year normal course was required. Later this became three years, then four years, and now the requirement is five years for high school teachers. For librarians, the increase in requirements was along slightly different lines, though not less severe, since it was early recognized that librarians need a broad cultural background. A full college course soon was required, either including or followed by a full year of professional training in an approved School of Library Science. This has since been increased to 36 semester hours. To this requirement has also been added the same professional requirement that all high school teachers must meet—12 semester hours in courses in educational theory and method. This is evidence that it has already been recognized that librarians must and do teach and therefore must be professionally prepared to do so.

In reply to persistent implications that the school librarian belongs to the "non-teaching group," a consideration of his duties in a modern high school will perhaps show how far he has traveled from the old days when stamping an occasional book was his principal task. The school librarian of today does vastly more than this. He must first of all have this wide cultural background and intimate acquaintance with books, for he must select and order the books which will supplement and vitalize all subjects of the curriculum and meet the interests and reading abilities of all types of pupils. The teacher must know the literature of his subject; the librarian must know the literature of all subjects if he is to select wisely.

Secondly, he must be a good administrator, for he must organize this mass of books and materials into an orderly arrangement so that he can immediately find what is wanted—not only the book wanted, but the exact information in the

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book. The required technical training to enable him to classify and catalog books and materials in this way is of no mean order. The professional course in librarianship is notoriously one of the most difficult courses offered in the professional schools. The librarian must also understand school organization in order to dovetail his program into the school's program and thus secure maximum use of the library. He must understand the teaching methods of his school so that he may coöperate with the teachers on a friendly, business-like basis. He must know adolescent psychology in order to carry on reading guidance and to establish friendly, sympathetic relations with the pupils. Every hour of the day the librarian is coming in contact with pupils and teachers in learning situations which are definitely teaching even though they may lack the formality of the classroom.

But it is in the field of individualized teaching that the librarian's big opportunity comes. He meets all the students in an informal way when they come to the library for books to read or to find information for use in tomorrow's class. He quietly suggests books along the lines of their interests, he helps each pupil to find in books what his growing intelligence craves, he teaches him how to find the information he desires and how to improve his study habits. The school librarian continually uses his specialized knowledge of books and of the curriculum to guide the child on a steadily rising reading level, as well as to make him an independent user of books to find information as he needs it. His work with the slow reader is teaching of a high order. First, the librarian must learn his interests, then provide books of a proper reading level to meet those interests, and gradually through his interests, raise that reading level.

The librarian also does formal teaching, as a study of the library reports from the high schools show. In so far as he is able to organize his work to fit the school's program, he meets every class in the school either in the library or in the classroom for periods of formal instruction in the use of library books and tools. He could do much more in this line if the school libraries of this city were not understaffed. The State Regulations require one librarian for every thousand pupils and only a few of the 75 high schools in this city meet this minimum standard. It is obvious that in an understaffed library it is difficult, if not impossible, to carry on anything like a complete program of formal teaching, though work with individual pupils goes on constantly.

In an attempt to show that school librarians in the New York City high schools are fully entitled to be included with the teaching staff, a survey was made of the cultural and professional training and professional experience of all appointed librarians in these schools. A questionnaire was sent to all 136 librarians and replies were received from 135, or 99.2%. Since a 50% return from a questionnaire is considered excellent, this return of almost 100% shows that librarians are professionally alert and willing to coöperate. A complete tabulation of the replies was made, of which the table at the end of this article gives the most significant points. A brief discussion of some of these points follows. In interpreting this study, it must be remembered that a number of these librarians were appointed years ago *before* the requirements for the position were raised. Of course recent appointees have, or will have before securing permanent licenses, all the requirements of a college degree, 36 semester hours of professional training in Library Science and 12 semester hours in courses in Education, but even before it was required, a very large proportion of the school librarians presented a college degree and a full year of professional training.

Under the heading, "No. of Years of Study Beyond High School," it is significant that 104, or 77%, of the 135 librarians replying, have had four years or more of study beyond high school, while 87, or 64.4%, have had five years or more. 28, or 20.7%, have had six years beyond high school.

In checking "No. of Degrees Held," it appears that 78 librarians, or 57.7%, hold B.A. degrees, 55, or 40.7%, hold B.L.S. degrees, while 57, or 42.2%, have Certificates in Library Science for a one year course. 10 have diplomas for a two year course in Library Science, 5 have M.A. degrees and 4 have M.S. degrees. There were many combinations of degrees, most librarians having B.A.'s in combination with the B.L.S., Certificate, Diploma, M.A. or M.S. It should be noted that in the case of an advanced degree in Library Science, two years of study beyond the B.A. are required for a Master's degree instead of the usual one year for an M.A. in other subjects.

As to professional training, the study shows that 126, or 93.3%, of the group have had 30 or more semester hours in courses in Library Science, while 22, or 16.2%, have had 60-68 semester hours. It was also shown that 102, or 75.5% have had 1-7 semester hours in courses in Education, and 85, or 62.9%, have had 8-16 semester hours or more. 40, or 29.6%, have had 21-30 semester hours or more. This proves clearly that a fair proportion of the library group are well equipped professionally.

The answers to the query as to "Teaching Experience Outside of the Library," show that 59, or 43.7%, of the group have had one year or more of teaching. 24, or 17.7%, have had four years or more of teaching.

Similarly the item "Public Library Experience," shows that most of the group have had the advan-

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SURVEY OF CULTURAL AND PROFESSIONAL TRAINING AND OF IN NEW YORK CITY

No. of Years of Study Beyond H. S.			No. of Degrees Held			Combinations of Degrees Held			No. of Libns.
No. of Years	No. of Libns.	Percent	Types	No. of Libns.	Percent	Types	No. of Libns.	Percent	No. of Sem. Hrs.
Less than 1 yr.	5	3.7%	B.A.	78	57.7%	B.A. only	3	2.2%	None or unknown
1 yr. or more	130	96.2%	B.S.	7	5.1%	Cert. in L.S. only	31	22.9%	14 or more
2 or more	118	87.4%	Ph.B.	4	2.9%	B.L.S. only	6	4.4%	30 or more
3 or more	109	80.7%	B.L.S.	55	40.7%	B.L.S. + B.A. *or* B.S.	46	34 %	31 or more
4 or more	104	77.0%	Cert.	57	42.2%	Cert. + B.A. *or* B.S.	27	20 %	32 or more
5 or more	87	64.4%	Diplo-ma	10	7.4%	B.A. *or* B.S. + Dip. in L.S.	5	3.7%	33 or more
6 or more	28	20.7%	M.A.	5	3.7%	Dip. in L.S. only	2	1.4%	34 or more
7 or more	7	5.1%	M.S.	4	2.9%	B.A. + M.A. *or* M.S. + B.L.S.	3	2.2%	36 or more
8	1	.7%				B.A. *or* B.S.+			38 or more
						M.A. or M.S.	7	5.1%	40 or more
									42-45 or more
									60-68 or more
									72-77

SIONAL EXPERIENCE OF 135 OF THE 136 SCHOOL LIBRARIANS SCHOOLS

R Hrs.	No. of Semester Hrs. of Education			Teaching Experience Outside of Library			Public Library Experience		
Percent	No. of Sem. Hrs.	No. of Libns.	Percent	No. of Years	No. of Libns.	Percent	Years	No. of Libns.	Percent
5.1%	None	32	23.7%	None	76	56.2%	None	25	18.5%
128 94.8%	1-7 hrs or more	102	75.5%	1 yr or more	59	43.7%	1 yr. or more	110	81.4%
126 93.3%	8-16 or more	85	62.9%	2 or more	39	28.8%	2 or more	94	69.6%
53 39.2%	17-20 or more	48	35.5%	3 or more	29	21.4%	3 or more	87	64.4%
50 37.0%	21-30 or more	40	29.6%	4 or more	24	17.7%	4 or more	75	55.5%
38 28.1%	31-45 or more	13	9.6%	5 or more	18	13.3%	5 or more	59	43.7%
				7 or more	15	11.1%	6 or more	47	34.8%
36 26.6%	60-75	3	2.2%	8 or more	10	7.4%	7 or more	35	25.9%
				9 or more	7	5.1%	8 or more	27	20.0%
34 25.1%				10 or more	6	4.4%	9 or more	22	16.2%
29 21.4%				11 or more	4	2.9%	10 or more	21	15.2%
27 20.0%				14 yr.	1	.7%	11 or more	13	9.6%
25 18.5%							12 or more	10	7.4%
22 16.2%							13 or more	6	4.4%
							14 or more	4	2.9%
3 2.2%							15 or more	3	2.2%
							18 yr.	1	7 %

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tage of first having worked in a public library with its excellent system of organization. 110, or 81.4%, have had one year or more of public library experience, while 94, or 69.6%, have had two or more years. 59, or 43.7%, have had five years or more of such experience, and so on up to 18 years.

Other points brought out by the questionnaire but not included in the table are noted briefly herewith. One which is of interest in this study is "Types of Colleges Attended." This item shows that Liberal Arts colleges have supplied 100, or 74%, of the school librarians. This indicates the broad cultural background of the group, the emphasis on subject matter which is so necessary in school library work.

In the matter of undergraduate majors, English Literature was a favoritte, 51, or 37.7%, having chosen it. However, the replies showed a wide area of study, demonstrating the broad and diverse interests of the group. The most usual graduate major, as might have been expected, is Library Science, 87, or 64.4%, having chosen it.

While it is true that a certain few out of the group could not meet today's standards, this is equally true of many teachers who came into the system before the standards were raised. The really outstanding fact is that so many of the library group came into the schools with preparation far exceeding the requirements at the time they applied.

In the face of the above facts, is it not obvious that school librarians, both by the type of work they do in the school libraries and by the cultural and professional training they have had, belong in the teaching group? Should they not in so many words be included in this group and be recognized, both because of their training and their work with the pupils and teachers, as members of the professional ranks of the school system? Other large cities such as Los Angeles, Denver, San Francisco, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh have already done so, and should not this city join the ranks of those progressive cities which recognize the work of their school librarians as a definite part of their instructional systems?

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AN EXPERIMENT IN INTELLECTUAL HONESTY

I. PURPOSE

The teaching of science has as one of its major objectives and one of its main problems the teaching of scientific attitudes. Whether science teachers are succeeding in fulfilling this objective is subject to question. The main purpose of this investigation is to attempt to cast a little light on this question and its answer. It is possible that some answer as to the correct method of teaching such attitudes also might emerge.

One of the most fundamental of such attitudes is that of intellectual honesty. This is not a simple entity but consists of a large number of related abilities. V. H. Noll calls intellectual honesty one of the six fundamental habits of thinking. He includes in this complex attitude or habit such related attitudes as sticking to facts, refraining from exaggeration, admitting being in the wrong when proved so, being unaffected by personal pride, bias, prejudice or ambition, and not compromising with truth as far as can be established.

The main purpose of the following experiment may be divided into the following minor purposes:

1. To attempt to measure pupil's honesty:
   a. By a re-examination of corrected examination papers that were handed back to pupils for their approval.
   b. By an examination of pupil reports of observations made in an experiment in the laboratory.
2. To see if there was any improvement in honesty as supposedly measured by the above methods due to exposure to the scientific atmosphere of a chemistry classroom for six months time. This was attempted by:—
   a. Measuring results in chemistry 7 classes and contrasting with results in chemistry 8 classes. The chemistry 7 classes had just started the study of chemistry while the chemistry 8 classes had had six months previous experience.
3. To see if
   a. Attempting to teach honesty directly in a specific situation would cause improvement.
   b. Teaching honesty directly by calling attention to dishonesty in either of the methods used would affect honesty as measured by the other method.

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Quantitative treatment of results obtained will be attempted but too much emphasis on small statistical discrepancies is not favored because of the many difficulties inherent in the experiment. Some of these difficulties were:

1. Lack of time for the return and accurate pupil survey of examination papers in our ordinary teaching schedule.
2. Particular foreshortening of September 1938-January 1939 term which made several further steps in the continuous testing procedure impossible.
3. The question as to whether the methods used were valid and reliable measures of the attitude tested. There is no doubt that many objections could be raised but it seems that there are some broad general implications that can be drawn from the general results.

The general scheme was to use the tests that we give our pupils at three weeks intervals as the basis of the test inspection part of the investigation. This was necessary because of the time element. This required the construction and mimeographing of a number of tests which contained in part a series of short type objective questions.

In the first test, which was given to two classes in chemistry 8 and to three classes in chemistry 7, a short type question worth two or three points was marked wrong when the answer was right. This was done on about one-half of all the papers. The purpose of this procedure was to see if pupils were sufficiently observant to detect errors against them and the incidence of such observations on the other half of the papers a similar question which had the wrong answer was marked right, that is not marked wrong. This would give a sampling of the honesty at the beginning of the term. The papers were then handed back and the correct answers written on the board. A piece of small yellow paper was stapled to the examination paper and the following statement read to all classes.

"These papers are handed back to you for your approval. You are to indicate on the yellow slip by number (1) all places where questions marked wrong are right, by (2) all places where questions marked right (or not marked wrong) are wrong and by (3) all places where you think you deserve more credit. All papers will then be re-examined and your marks adjusted." Item 3 was necessarily included to allow pupil protests on the non-objective parts of the tests.

In every instance, it was possible to find time for a review of the short type answers although in some instances, unfortunately the entire test was not reviewed.

In all cases, the papers were handed back to the pupils after teacher re-examination and in the cases where the pupil was marked wrong, if right, the recorrected mark was written on the yellow slip. Similarly, if a pupil indicated that a wrong answer had been marked right, his recorrected mark was written on the yellow slip. In all other cases, the paper was returned to the pupil unchanged while the true mark was recorded in the teacher's record book.

In group A (the number of rights marked wrong) there appears to be no significant difference between the C 7 and the C 8 groups since deviations in percent results vary but slightly from the average of the two groups. In the reported subgroup, the C 8-80% and the C 7-86% are pretty close to the average 84%. The fact that pupils did not score closer to 100% in detecting this type of error might mean that they are not as observant as they should be. It is interesting also to see that the C 7 group is more observant apparently than the older trained group, which has had six months training in observation in science.

In group B (the number of wrong marked right, there appears

RESULTS OF TEST I

	A. Number of rights marked wrong.		B. Number of wrongs marked right	
	Reported	*Unreported*	*Reported*	*Unreported*
C 81	14	1	0	14
C 83	10	5	2	13
C 8	—	—	—	—
Totals	24 - 80%	6 - 20%	2 - 7%	27 - 93%
C 74	15	2	7	12
C 75	15	3	3	16
C 76	14	2	5	16
C 7	—	—	—	—
Totals	44 - 86%	7 - 14%	15 - 25%	44 - 75%
C 7 and 8				
Totals	68 - 84%	13 - 16%	17 - 19%	71 - 81%

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in favor of the C 7 group. The C 8 shows only 7% honesty in returns while the C 7 shows 25% and the average 19%. Apparently those pupils who were not exposed to the scientific atmosphere were more honest than those who were. When we consider that only 19% of all pupils reported honestly the need for teaching of the attitude becomes evident.

Several weeks later, the second examination was given. In this test, wherever possible, all papers had an incorrect answer marked as correct. This was done to furnish a broad quantitative basis for further experimentation and variation in procedure. Another purpose was to find if any significant change had occurred within the three weeks further exposure to chemistry. The same general procedure in return of papers was followed here as in test I.

RESULTS OF TEST II

	B. Number of Wrongs Marked Right	
	Reported	*Unreported*
C 81	0	26
C 83	1	30
	—	—
C 8..Totals	1 - 2%	56 - 98%
C 74	4	31
C 75	4	28
C 76	6	26
	—	—
C 7 Totals	14 - 14%	85 - 85%
C 7 and 8 Totals	15 - 10%	141 - 90%

Here again we find the same discrepancy between the C 7 and C 8 groups as in test I and this discrepancy is again in favor of the C 7 group. C 7 had 14% honesty and C 8 only 2%. Is it possible that the more concentrated emphasis in the C 7 group was responsible for the results? In C 7, during the first three weeks great emphasis was laid on scientific attitude in studying the work of Lavoisier and in the next three weeks in studying the work of Dalton. The C 8 group had had previous training under a variety of teachers and it is possible that the previous training had been variable. The work during the first six weeks in C 8 placed greater emphasis on factual material and

provided no greater opportunity for the study of attitudes in connection with the work of a great chemist. Could this difference in content be of significance in explaining the results? If this so so, then there was little carryover value from the previous study of attitudes during the previous term. Or it might possibly mean that continuous drill is necessary in attitude as well as in content material.

There was a slump in the percent result for both groups. In test I, 19% honesty resulted while in test II only 10% honesty resulted. In test II, however, practically the entire group was concerned, while in test I, only half the group had been subjected to this procedure.

The results for both tests were consolidated to obtain a large number of cases representing the first half of the term.

COMBINED RESULTS OF TESTS I & II

	B. Number of Wrongs Marked Right	
	Reported	*Unreported*
C 81	0	40
C 83	3	43
	—	—
C 8 Totals	3 - 3.5%	83 - 96.5%
C 74	11	43
C 75	7	44
C 76	11	42
	—	—
C 7 Totals	29 - 18%	129 - 82%
C 7 and 8 Totals	32 - 13%	212 - 87%

A third test was now given to the C 8 classes only. A variation was tried with the C 83 group. When their recorrected test II papers were returned, all the papers were marked correctly and it was pointed out that many of the pupils had been guilty of dishonesty either deliberately or otherwise in their perusal of the two previous tests. Test I was handed back at the same time with the real mark indicated. The purpose of this procedure was to see whether direct reference to a particular situation would cause correction or improvement when test III would be examined. The C 83 group was asked to indicate the reasons for such apparent dishonesty on the back of their second examination paper. The purpose of this was to reveal

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—(1) possible injustice done to pupils in accusing them of dishonesty and (2) some insight into how their minds were working in the situation.

The other group, C 81 was untouched and was to be used as the non-variable group in all comparisons with C 7.

RESULTS OF TEST III—C 8

	B. Number of Wrongs Marked Right	
	Reported	*Unreported*
C 81	3 - 14%	18 - 86%
C 83	14 - 52%	13 - 48%
Totals—not significant		

The C 83 group showed a decided increase in honesty but not as great an improvement as might be anticipated. The C 81 group also showed an increase from 0 to 14%. It is unfortunate that, because of many absences, the number of papers that were returned to pupils was small.

The C 83 group was finally tested for carry-over by handing back the midterm paper which had a two point question treated as in tests II and III. This was necessary since no further provision was made for another test before the Regents. These papers were not only re-examined and recorrected but the true midterm mark was returned to the pupil before the report cards were distributed.

RESULTS OF TEST IV—C 83

	B. Number of Wrongs Marked Right	
	Reported	*Unreported*
C 83	15 - 40.6%	22 - 59.4%

The results showed quite some carry-over from the previous lesson on test III. However, the honest responses were duplicates in the case of 4 pupils so that there were only 10 honest responses, one pupil reporting a triple error. In only 4 of these 10 cases had a pupil made a previously honest response so that the net result was only 6 carry-over responses in 33 pupils. These results were not very encouraging but there was some improvement and some carry-over. In 7 cases, however, pupils who had made at least one previous honest response failed to respond honestly on this test. It is possible that the importance of the midterm examination may have caused this result.

The midterms of C 74 were treated in the same manner as in C 83 after the pupils were subjected to the same treatment as the C 83 group. This group, however, had no chance to review a third test before dealing with the midterm.

RESULTS IN TEST III—C 74

	B. Number of Wrongs Marked Right	
	Reported	*Unreported*
C 74	1 - 3.6%	28 - 96.4%

These results were very poor when compared with the comparatively high results for tests I and II for this group. In these combined results there were 11 out of 53 responses that were honest. This was about 20% for tests I and II against 3.6% for test III, the midterm. Here again the importance of the examination may have caused poor results. These pupils had been previously asked to explain dishonest responses in tests I and II.

REASONS GIVEN BY PUPILS FOR DISHONESTY

	C 7 No.	C 8 No.
1. No answer or just "Nothing"	25	10 (6 of these wrote "Nothing")
2. "Overlooked it"	2	(one of these said he didn't think the two points made much difference.)
3. "Looking at other questions"	1	
4. "Questions gone over too rapidly"		1
5. "Thought right"	1	3
6. "Thought questionable"		1

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7.	"Thought right since same answer on another paper was not marked wrong"	1
8.	"Thought another question marked wrong was right so did not report this one"	1
9.	"Skipped it"	4
10.	"Didn't do it"	1
11.	Admit dishonesty	3 (two of these boys claimed that their interest in high marks was responsible.)
	"No indication that question was wrong"	1
	"Apparently changed wrong answer to right one and did not report it."	2

These meager answers were interesting principally because only 3 boys admitted dishonesty. In most cases we have implications of dishonesty or attempts at rationalizations. These answers show improper training in the elements of intellectual honesty. Those papers where no answer was attempted were interpreted as tacit admissions of dishonesty.

The next procedure was to have the three C 7 classes report on the results of a laboratory experiment. This, unfortunately, could not be tried with the C 8 classes. The object of the experiment was to study methods of formation of acids and bases from oxides and water. During the first ten or fifteen minutes, the teacher burned sulphur and phosphorous in a bottle over water, shook up the resultant oxides with the water and tested with litmus. The pupils concluded that nonmetallic oxides and water produced an acid. The teacher then burned magnesium and tested the resultant oxide as well as calcium oxide in the same manner with water and litmus. The pupils concluded that metallic oxides form bases with water. The pupils were then asked to do the experiment using sulphur, phosphorous, and a wooden splint to form oxides and to also use oxides of calcium and silicon, clearly labelled as such, with water and litmus. They were told that calcium was a metal and silicon a nonmetal. The pupils were not told that their silicon dioxide was finely powdered sand. They were asked to hand in a brief report of the litmus reactions at the end of the laboratory period.

RESULTS OF LABORATORY EXPERIMENT—C 7'S

Correct Results Reported		Incorrect Results Reported	
C 74	0 - 0%	26 - 100%	
C 75	15 - 48%	16 - 52%	
C 76	6 - 20%	24 - 80%	
C 7 Totals	21	-24%	66 -76%

The results in C 75 and, consequently, the entire total results of correct responses were too high since the presence of the laboratory assistant in one part of the laboratory and some information he must have given to two tables of boys in that laboratory period led to practically perfect reports from 14 out of 15 boys at these two tables. It is also possible that there was some transfer of information between the boys at these tables in C 75 to the entering C 76 boys. In Class 76, at the first table, there were 5 correct responses out of six pupils. In the entire class C 76 there were only 6 correct responses. This probably means that the correct responses for the entire C 7 group were nearer 0% than 24%.

The interesting thing was that in C 74 which had had a previous lesson in honesty on examination papers there was 0% honest response in the laboratory. This probably means that one procedure had little transfer value on the other. We probably are not teaching the boys to be honest in the laboratory and we are certainly not transferring any of this attitude to outside situations.

The results in C 75 showed the sheep-like dependence of the pupils on a person in authority (the laboratory assistant) in backing up their own suspicions about the litmus paper reaction. The remaining half of the class was equally sheep-like in depending on the other authority (the teacher and the principle previously derived) in spite of the litmus reactions. In no case throughout the three classes was there a suggestion made that the principle be rephrased to conform to the facts. It would then have read, "Soluble oxides react with water to form acids and bases."

Before all the C 7 classes were given a last written test, the results of the laboratory experiment were discussed with the C 75 class. The laboratory experiment was fully explained to them and they arrived at the conclusions that (1) it was wrong scientifically and ethically to report false results, (2) there was need for objectivity in science activities and general behavior and (3) generalizations should not be

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accepted too readily or upon apparent authority. This was done before the corrected papers of the last test were distributed to them.

The last test, which was given about the thirteenth week was treated in the same manner as the other tests.

RESULTS OF TEST IV—C 7'S

	B.			
	Number of Wrongs Marked Right			
	Reported		*Unreported*	
C 74	14 -	74%	5 -	26%
C 75	1 -	9%	10 -	91%
C 76	0 -	0%	23 -	100%
C 7 Totals	15	-30%	38	70%

The results in C 75, although meager, showed that there was no transfer of one kind of honesty training to another situation. This had previously been shown using the laboratory and test procedures in reverse order.

There seemed to be fine carry-over from test III in the C 74 class. This was the class that had had a previous lesson in honesty in the examination procedure. In test IV, there was 74% honesty while in test III there had been 3.6% honesty.

The C 76 group, which served as the non-variable C 7 group, showed no improvement of any sort. In fact, throughout the term there seemed to be a regression in honesty. The combined results of test I and II showed 20% honesty while the last examination-Test IV showed 0%. Apparently ordinary science teaching does not make our boys more honest. This regression is probably due to the fact that when boys reported incorrect marking they were penalized.

Comparison of the C 7 non-variable group with the C 8 non-variable group shows that the latter, C 81 improved from 0% honesty in tests I and II to 14% honesty in test III. The results, therefore, are somewhat contradictory but there seems to be very little consistent improvement due to the six months' exposure to chemistry.

III. CONCLUSIONS

There seems to be little point in attempting to collect all results since there were many variables introduced. The results for the two non-variable classes have been summarized in the two previous paragraphs and only these total results seem to be significant.

In accordance with the minor purposes stated at the beginning of the experiment the conclusions are as follows:

1. Intellectual honesty was tested, at least to some extent, since both procedures employed such criteria as objectivity, sticking to facts, not compromising with truth and testing responsibility for truth in the face of authority.
2. There seemed to be little improvement in honesty due to the usual teaching procedures. The results in the non-variable classes bear this out.
3. The results in C 74 and C 83 seem to show that there is some carry-over value in the direct teaching of honesty in a specific situation. The effect of one method of teaching honesty as measured in the other seemed very slight when measured in terms of the C 74 and C 75 results. Honesty in the laboratory is just as poor if not poorer than in the examination procedure as shown in the results of the laboratory experiment with the C 7s.

The results in all cases seem to show that our pupils have very little if any appreciation of intellectual honesty as a vital part of character. We are not teaching pupils intellectual honesty in our ordinary procedures in the science classroom or laboratory. Maybe we should revise our teaching procedures with this in view. We might improve the condition by using direct methods of teaching and direct lessons in the value of the attitude. Devoting more time to a study of the historical and biographical aspects of chemistry with less emphasis on the factual material might furnish a partial solution.

JOSEPH F. CASTKA.
Boys High School.

I'M AN UNSUCCESSFUL COACH!

"What a coach — haw! You haven't turned out a winner in years. Why don't you give yourself up!" The remark was passed more or less in jest some weeks ago by a fellow teacher and coach, and at the moment, completely ignored. But then, as sometimes happens, the real significance of the retort "struck home" and grew, and kept on growing until it actually began to rankle in my breast. A failure as coach! Why? Had not I always enjoyed my work so very much? Had not my youngsters always gotten the biggest "kick" of competing on the team despite the fact that they tasted the fruits of victory so seldom? Was I really a failure because my boys failed to pile up

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points in athletic competition?

Yes, I am an unsuccessful coach nevertheless, a completely satisfied one. Strange, one might say, that I should feel so cocky about it, but really, it doesn't worry me a bit! I somehow feel perfectly and fully justified in my attitude. It becomes a matter of personal opinion concerning the values of the present varsity team set-up in the high school today as compared with the growing interscholastic program of activities.

Very few people, if any, have heard of the athletes I coached, but really, I don't care! In fact, I might add, if by chance one of my proteges did come through any interscholastic competition between varsity teams as a winner (as did happen on rare occasion), I honestly admit he did so because of his own natural ability and not through any superior coaching on my part.

Yes, I suppose as a coach of a rather insignificant varsity team this does sound much like that favorite old alibi unsuccessful American coaches are supposed to have: "I'm not training my men to win; I'm building character." After all, some "successful" coaches might say, why shouldn't I resort to that alibi; so few of my boys ever did come through. Yet, I honestly and humbly say, "I'm not training my men to win." Frankly, I lack the so-called heart to drive my men on to victory. Nor do I feel that the varsity team set-up is itself an ideal medium for the building of character. To me, this concentration on a specialized group fails miserably and is terribly inadequate as the proper laboratory for the practice of the ideals and principles inherent in our present day enlightened and progressive physical education program, a program embracing all individuals and making the widest of allowances for even the most extreme cases of individual differences.

Must then the very definite benefits and carry-over values of this valuable and practical program be monopolized? Yes, and often abused as well, by a select few already skilled and fit: the varsity team.

True, recognition and acceptance of the splendid democratic and pedagogic principles of the intramural program is beginning to take hold but, in my estimation, much too slowly; whereas the popularity of the major teams has maintained unwaveringly its supreme niche from time of inception.

Why should not the very great majority of "average" boys reap the benefits of the program we have to offer? After all, are they not just as enthusiastic, just as exuberant, just as full of desire to compete as the members of the varsity teams?

True, some are much too short, some too thin, some far too stout to make the big team; but assuredly, their feelings, desires, and ambitions to compete in team games are just as keen if not much keener because of the whetting effects of frustration.

To me, personally, the broad all-inclusive intra-mural program is so much wiser and more practical a medium and laboratory for disseminating the practices of our profession rather than the intense, concentrated management of sports by specialized coaches, often with reputations to attain—or maintain.

As a parent, reflecting in retrospect on the days when I competed in high school sports, I frankly doubt whether I should care to have my own son experience some of the so-called body and character building phases of interscholastic competition that I went through. To come tearing down the last few yards of a race — feet pounding, arms pumping, eyes popping, veins bulging, throat choking, face writhing and distorted, drawn of every vestige of blood, convulsive — to finally fling a spent, inert, lifeless body across the tape—fainting—vomiting—

Do I paint an unusual picture? Exaggerated? I think not.

And to what end, this supreme physical sacrifice? For love of the sport alone? Perhaps, but more often I imagined it is to beat the man ahead! Beat, beat, beat! Win, win, win!

The effect of victory on the exultant young hero — how wholesome, I wonder, is that very definite and exaggerated feeling of superiority he acquires as a result of the hilarious acclaim and laudatory bouquets tossed so freely and generously at him. Considering this situation honestly, do we more often than not find this terrific build-up resulting in a very decided superiority culminating in select cliques, parvenus, fraternities, brazen snobbishness!

And the "also rans"—the feeling of coming in at the tail end, especially with large groups of intimate friends and acquaintances out to cheer, but instead jeer—to face the heartlessly cruel jibes, taunts, and "wise-cracks" of pals, as is so typical of the adolescent make-up—what effect does all this have on the extremely sensitive nature of the discouraged loser? Can one honestly say that now his character has at last been tempered in the bitterly hot cauldron of defeat —even though it does only too often create a marked inferiority, intense moroseness, brooding—

Body and character building—I wonder?

From the above, the reader might gather that I condemn victory and encourage defeat. Decidedly not! A challenge with equal chances for victory or defeat must be presented —else the game or sport loses its full purpose, its spark, its "flavor," its essential ingredient. And this natural challenge-element inherent in the game should suffice unto itself to spur the youth on! The game for the game's sake rather than a namesake (coach's or school's) is not too fantastic or

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impractical a theory. The frantic driving coach, only too often completely oblivious of the principles of the game, in his desperate desire to beat the opposing team, is certainly not *the* driving urge to activity we should seek to satisfy.

Somehow, a program of numerous diversified sports, supervised by a number of interested teachers and enthusiastically participated in by great masses of effervescent, jubilant boys just cannot seem to be tainted or in way motivated by that very definite, almost tangible feeling of cut-throat intensity and desperate effort to win that always seem to be associated with interscholastic competition. The painfully sharp edge of competition is mercifully dulled—yet not to the extent of minimizing the keenness of joy to be gotten out of the game itself!

Nor is it any one sport in particular that's to blame. Almost any sport can be injurious to the adolescent if he is allowed to overdo it. It is the degree of intensity practiced in competitive school sports that does the damage. The activities of a school should not be limited to the four major sports, since athletics, to be educative, should form habits, attitudes, and skills which carry over into later life. To conform to this principle, more attention should be given to the minor sports such as tennis, golf, swimming, volley ball, handball, and so forth.

Fortunately, these activities are beginning to receive more deserved stress in many of our high schools but, in my opinion, this recognition is much too slow; and very often, even though this recognition had been gained, these so-called minor sports are still decidedly subservient to the major sports.

However, I am still optimistic enough to hope that in the very near future the administration of athletics will have greater respect for the personality of large groups of players and thus minimize the possibility of violating sound pedagogic theory by exploiting individuals for the glory of the school, or the coach. *And then the intramural program will come into its own,* and with it, I most sincerely believe, will vanish most of the aforementioned evils associated with the varsity team set-up.

This situation, I know, is far from new. Countless articles have appeared in recent years exposing the evils of cut-throat interscholastic competition—but alas, instead of being eliminated, this cancerous-like lesion of the school curriculum seems but to have grown. Time and again have I heard my opinions branded as impractical, purely theoretical, "hot air"—still I am very happy to say, that to date no one has succeeded in convincing me otherwise.

Impractical theory? Hot air?

I wonder, as we look at the exuberant youngster sporting a varsity letter on a proud, puffed-up chest, how often we stop to consider the changes that have been taking place inside that same chest; for, very definitely marked changes have been taking place.

These facts have been familiar to me for quite some time but only recently was it impressed upon me with particular force by an article written by Mr. James V. Williams in one of the current magazines.[1]

At high school age, making a place on the team becomes the chief purpose of existence for the boy; and it is just about this time that the body begins to change bewilderingly. Arms and legs may lose all proportion with the rest of him. He feels new and strange sensations. Any attempt to evaluate his capacities in this transitional stage results in confusion and anxiety for him.

Already driven by the necessity of proving themselves for their souls' satisfaction, fast-growing Johnny and Joe make the high school team and are goaded even more mercilessly by social compulsions. They have to reassure themselves in this period of doubt and misgiving by exerting themselves to the limit. They have to show their team-mates, the coach, and the stands, that they can take it. They have to demonstrate their manhood if it kills them. They've got to "show 'em the kind of stuff old Alma Mater's got. Get in there and fight. Let's do or die for dear old Alma Mater!" It's not pleasant to think how close it often comes to being do and die. And it's so easy for the coach of athletics to overwork Johnny and Joe. They give prodigally of themselves in the frenzied effort to pile up mountains of evidence in which to bury all suspicion of their being sissies. It's especially easy to overwork them if they develop into good players.

Johnny and Joe are in the middle of one of the hardest jobs they'll have, without drafting them for hard labor to the glory of their school. Adding the inches they acquire during the comparatively short period of the "adolescent spurt" takes about all the energy they can extract from their three squares and numerous supplements per day. They shouldn't be subjected to any unnecessary strain.

But they're likely-looking athletic material. Even if they weren't so pitiably eager to make the team, they'd be forced into it. They'd be yellow if they didn't try out. They'd have no school spirit. They make the team and to meet the school's demands in fierce athletic competition they overdraw their energy accounts. Simultaneously they become high-school heroes and physical bankrupts.

The growing-up process is peculiar. Johnny and Joe don't grow up evenly; it would be better if they did. It's as if parts of their systems were racing one another to matur-

[1] "Parents Magazine," Feb. 1939.

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ity. Some parts get considerably ahead of others.

Exterior evidence of this disparity in growth is familiar and, to the adolescent, embarrassing. For a while, the nose is the fastest growing part of the body. Ears frequently take up the challenge, however, and the adolescent wonders miserably if he will take off in the next high wind. Legs and arms have a disconcerting way of suddenly lengthening beyond all proportionate limits.

The same sort of more or less independent growth-surges occur within the adolescing body. These inequalities are not so embarrassing to the boy or girl because they don't happen quite so publicly, but they're likely to be even more important than the obvious ones. Critical strains are created which may be revealed in tragic ways.

Take the still mysterious operation of the glandular system, for instance. Among other things not understood about it are its changes during adolescence. We know such changes take place, but not completely why or how. The sex glands usually begin to function at the beginning of adolescence. The thymus usually disappears. There seems to be some connection between the phenomena.

The thymus is a large gland at the base of the neck, in front. It seems to be the gland of childhood, gradually decreasing in size as the child grows until it practically has disappeared in adolescence. At least, this is what usually happens.

Occasionally a lifeless body will sprawl on a football gridiron after a scramble has untangled itself. Or a suddenly inert figure will be carried from a basketball floor after a jolt that was not especially hard. Examiners will find no concussion of the brain, no evidence of fatal injury. The cause of death will be a baffling mystery until suspicious fingers detect the existence of a good-sized thymus. The thymus sometimes persists into adolescence. When it does, it possesses the power to convert sudden shock into sudden death.

Our present knowledge of the glandular system is admittedly incomplete. We do know enough, however, to enable us to respect it. It seems wise, then, not to subject teen-age children to undue overloads while glandular alterations are in progress.

There comes a time in the early teens when Johnny's and Joe's hearts become ambitious to assume adult proportions. The rest of the circulatory system — the arteries, veins, and capillaries—doesn't keep up. In proportion to the increased size of the heart, the body's piping is of too small a gauge. The heart has to overcome more resistance, therefore, in pumping the blood through, which means that it must work harder. Headaches are frequent. Faintness, palpitations and general restlessness, signs of circulatory disproportions, are common.

The heart so far outstrips the arteries in size during adolescence, that their width is only two-fifths what it has been, in proportion to the heart, during childhood. Arteries comprise the outlets and inlets to the heart. Since they are too small after the heart's individual "adolescent spurt," the heart has a much bigger job. It works under a constant strain. And it has more blood to pump.

The piping, remember, has the same diameter, but the capacity of the pump and the volume of blood have increased. As might be expected, blood pressure rises. The average is around 109 at the age of eleven, 124 at fifteen and 112 at eighteen, when the arteries have caught up with the heart in growth. The situation isn't necessarily dangerous if allowances are made for it. A headache or palpitations ought to be the signal for a short rest.

But can Johnny stop in the middle of football practice with the big game only a week off and lie down for a while because he has a headache? If Joe feels a little groggy, can he ask to be excused until he feels better, with the score tied and two minutes to go? They've got to stay in there and fight while there's a breath left in them. What if a belabored heart is permanently damaged? What if the strain of prolonged exertion forces the heart to pump blood faster than the arteries can take it? All that's likely to happen is that it'll back up and wreck a few valves so they can never completely close as they must in a healthy, efficient heart. If Johnny and Joe survive the season, they'll be given big letters to wear on their chests. Aren't they worth leaky valves?

Because I am totally and completely imbued with this "theoretical" philosophy, I welcome *all* comers (approved by physician, of course) to my teams; and, never does one of my boys have to fear a frantic harangue, desperate urgings, driving exhortations—bitter, scathing "call-downs" in case of defeat—. For, why should I not realize that it is only natural for the tensely strained, eager, and ambitious youngster to give his very all. Why should I not sense that a bit of sympathetic understanding and encouragement is far more important to this young man, than for his fellow victor.

Coddling, some might call it? Developing softies and sissies? It depends upon the viewpoint! But putting myself in the bitterly depressed young boy's place—wondering how I'd feel—and also emphasizing the physical growth rather than publicity growth — is reason enough for me to continue happily on my way as an "unsuccessful" coach without too many qualms of conscience!

NATHAN RUBIN.

Eastern District High School

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THE PLACE OF THE FILM IN EDUCATION

I. INTRODUCTION

In spite of the fact that the possibilities of the movie as a classroom teaching aid are limitless, teachers are unaware of the potential values of this instrument. Thus far we have not come close to a full realization of the opportunities provided by this new device. This, in short, is the main conclusion reached by Dr. Elizabeth Laine in the fourth volume of the report of the Regents' Inquiry. If this is so, it is imperative that we explore this field as thoroughly as possible to the end that our teaching be enriched by this new technique.

Unfortunately, in spite of the fact that film education is several years old, the field is practically uncharted. What its possibilities are, we cannot say with any degree of accuracy. And so, when we follow Dr. Laine's advice to make teachers aware of its great promise, we cannot furnish a plotted course, refined through years of actual use. All that can be done at present is to show what the possibilities are and to present the lessons of our limited experience to the end that we may harness this new educational device to our needs.

This immediately brings up several problems that must be solved as soon as possible. Failure to study these problems will lead to a haphazard development of film lessons that must doom the movie to just another fad or frill that "teacher-dom" has discovered for its own entertainment or relaxation. Film education must be carefully plotted and thought out in advance. Only then can we derive the greatest benefit from it. These, then are some of the problems that we must solve:

1. *How valuable are film lessons?*
2. *What is a good film?*
3. *What films are available?*
4. *What techniques must be utilized?*
5. *What dangers do films present?*
6. *What remains to be done?*

These questions can be answered on the basis of our limited experience with films during the past few years. More important, answers must be sought from an organized program of experimentation and research conducted separately by each department of our schools.

II. ARE FILM LESSONS WORTHWHILE?

Assuming that good films are used and that proper techniques are employed, are film lessons worthwhile? We must bear in mind that this type of lesson is expensive and that it requires more time than does the recitation method. It requires certain chores that make it far less convenient than the ordinary lesson. Finally, it requires a measure of mechanical ability that some teachers do not even profess to have. In spite of these objections, such lessons are decidedly worthwhile. Let us see why.

Firstly, all of our schools have a type of student variously referred to as low I. Q., non-academically minded, non-book minded, specials, sub-normals, adjustment pupils and a host of other names. For years, we have preached the doctrine that we should adjust our methods and curricula to individual differences. The film lesson presents one method of really facing the fact that these children cannot obtain information from the printed page. Have we not seen in the past that pages in books or recitation in class merely present them with a series of words that they can, at best, reproduce in class without the slightest idea as to meaning? Certain necessary factual information can be better understood if actually seen in a film than read in a textbook. This applies especially to the sub-normal pupils. Many teachers will agree that this is equally true of average pupils.

Secondly, factual material can be retained over a longer period of time if impressively presented by a good film lesson. Children find it difficult to remember such information presented in verbal form. Reviewing for a final examination is one of the most disheartening of experiences when it reveals to the teacher that the class has completely forgotten the work that was planned so carefully. And yet, a simple reference to a film brings back to their minds immediately the material that the teacher called for. In other words, did not Paul Muni do more to impress upon the memories of our children the story of the Dreyfus Case than can the best textbook and recitation?

Thirdly, there is a certain background necessary for a complete understanding and full appreciation of much of what we teach. Frequently, we attempt to supply this background ourselves. The futility becomes self-evident. Words cannot convey to them the terror in The Reign of Terror as can the picture, *A Tale of Two Cities.* It is unquestionable that the Yale Chronicle Series can do far more than we have done to give our classes the necessary background for our colonial history.

Fourthly, many of us have seen how the deadly routine of the recitation method day in and day out begins to pall on the class. Yes, we can vary our methods with such devices as debates, reports, blackboard work and socialized recitations. And yet, there is some degree of similarity in all of these methods. At any rate, the film lesson introduces greater variety that is bound to arouse greater interest. The very sight of the projector in the classroom is motivation for the lesson if we can judge from the "ahs!" and "ohs!" with which the equipment is greeted.

Is it possible to teach concepts through the use of films? It must

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be recognized that the possibilities here are limited. However, this can frequently be done better through film lessons than through recitations. For example, tolerance can be brought to the attention of a class very effectively through a very short film entitled *Contrasts of 1938*. In a film entitled *Hands*, the concept that created purchasing power for one group spreads to benefit the entire community is explained with great clarity. The idea of interdependence can be made very clear for a slow group of second termers in Civics through the use of a film entitled *"Interdependence."*

A film giving a kaleidoscopic view of a unit just completed offers an excellent method of review. An example of a film of this type is *The Real New York*. The civics teacher can use this to review a good part of the civics syllabus. Some teachers may prefer to use a film of this type to motivate the lessons on these topics or to furnish an apperceptive basis that is lacking for a true appreciation of the subject.

II. WHAT IS A GOOD FILM?

How shall we evaluate films? We must adopt a really critical attitude. This is said because of a really fundamental error in our attitude toward film education in its early history. There is a feeling that since this is something new, it must be handled gently, that weaknesses must be ignored or at least must be coddled. By refusing to deal harshly with these films, we are doing film education a real disservice. We, at Manual, have had some experience in this field. Our department felt that if this device offered any educational values, we had to take full advantage of it. Available films were obtained and our teachers were encouraged to make use of such materials. Wholehearted coöperation was given by our department. Teachers experimented with film lessons. After a while, the use of films dropped close to the zero point. This was quite a revelation to me. Fired with a missionary zeal, I had overlooked the fact that, of the long list of films that I had distributed, there were probably not more than one or two that were worth using. The critical attitude of our teachers was far more desirable for the future of this field than the gentleness with which we tend to judge poor films. *The vast majority of so-called educational films are not worth using in the class.*

It is a mistake to view educational films as being an infant industry. Commercial films have reached a very high degree of efficiency as far as technical accomplishment and acting are concerned. There is absolutely no reason why educational films must start with the amateurish efforts of the commercial films of twenty-five years ago.

Let us establish the criteria for a good film for use in the classroom.

1. It must be produced and acted by professionals so that it has the smoothness of a Hollywood film. The value of good films is frequently destroyed by a failure to appreciate this. Even the Yale Chronicle Films, which have been produced under qualified people, do not always meet this criterion.

In this connection, many have advocated the values of having pupils make their own films under the direction of competent teachers. Let me dismiss this briefly. There is educational value in this expensive process — for the pupils involved in making the film but not for those viewing it.

2. The question of time is very important. Considering the fact that the actual showing of a film is but one of three important steps in the film lesson, the film must not consume more than twenty-five minutes, the time for two reels. In fact, a two reel showing frequently requires part of the next period for the last step, the follow-up. We must also consider how much time would be necessary to teach this same lesson by some other method. If the film lesson takes considerably more time, does the superiority in results warrant this additional time?

3. The film must be so constructed that it will hold the attention of a class of pupils.

4. The language and ideas that the film employs should be intelligible to pupils.

5. The film must contain something definite that you want to teach. Too frequently, we show a film that "looks good" but doesn't fit into the course of study. Frequently, a part of the film covers required work. The teacher must then judge whether it is worthwhile to show the entire reel in order to see this part.

6. The film must be available when needed. By availability we mean the ability of a teacher to obtain a film with the least possible inconvenience and expense just when it is needed. Let us not minimize this point. This is not merely a matter of convenience. Ordering films six months in advance (when one doesn't even know what grades of the subject he is going to teach) is a serious handicap. Assuming that the teacher can predict with absolute accuracy the date when the film can be used, the lending organization frequently finds that it cannot furnish the films for that particular date. These organizations are handicapped by a demand for films which overtaxes their facilities. Frequently, films are ordered for the whole department. This presupposes that all teachers reach the topic at the same time. This, we know, is not true. The result is that films are frequently used after or before the lesson is reached in the course of the term's work. This is a grave fault. The film must be available at exactly the period when the lesson is to be given according

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to the term plan of the teacher.

In addition, when the teacher must send messengers to call for and deliver films, constantly appeal for funds for express charges, and attend to the mailing or shipping of packages, we can rest assured that, even though he already recognizes the wonderful possibilities in this field, he is not going to take advantage of them.

7. The need for accuracy in the film is something that needs little discussion. Inaccuracy in films is a deterrent only when the teacher is unaware of the inaccuracy. A skilful teacher, by properly preparing the class for the film, can turn these inaccuracies into pedagogical assets.

8. It goes without saying that the photography, sound and other technical details must be close to perfection.

III. WHAT FILMS ARE AVAILABLE?

Space does not permit a listing of individual films at the present time. As announced, future articles in HIGH POINTS will review available films. What we shall do here is to list the sources that are available for our use. It is recommended that catalogues be obtained from the sources indicated.

Probably the most convenient and helpful of all organizations in this matter is the Film Division of the American Museum of Natural History. Films are called for and delivered free of charge by the museum's messenger. There are, however, two defects in their service. As we have stated, the demand for films far exceeds the supply. Thus, films must be ordered at least six months ahead of time. This, we have seen, is unsatisfactory. Secondly, the type of film available is suitable mainly for the elementary school. Even those films labeled secondary school films do not fit directly into our curricula.

The Metropolitan Museum of Art and the Brooklyn Museum have limited collections. Here, however, you must use your own messenger. Orders may be made on comparatively brief notice. The films are not too well adapted for our use. Both have the Yale Chronicle Series.

The Bureau of Guidance and Placement distributes films dealing with vocational guidance. These are useful in economic citizenship (Civics 2) classes only. They may be borrowed through the vocational guidance department of the school.

Different high schools have become film centers for various subjects. This is probably the most promising means of distribution. It should be the job of the various professional associations of teachers to foster the establishment and growth of these film centers.

The United States Government has several worthwhile films (like *The River* and *The Plough that Broke the Plain*) that may be borrowed. Unfortunately, these must be ordered well in advance. The school must pay transportation charges both ways. The nuisance of mailing doesn't make this source very promising. The U. S. Film Service has offered to lease these films to us so that they may be more conveniently utilized.

There are hundreds of private firms that have valuable films available at no cost except transportation. There are, of course, numerous catalogues available giving this information.

Hollywood is making available parts of some of their feature length films and their newsreels for educational purposes. These must be purchased. An example of this is the film entitled *Abraham Lincoln*. Another is *Men and Oil*, a part of the picture entitled *High, Wide and Handsome*. This deals with the struggle of the oilmen against the railroads and their final triumph over the railroads through the construction of pipe lines.

It is quite obvious to all of us that our youngsters are movie-conscious. This gives us an approach that we must utilize to the greatest extent. In planning the full exploitation of films, we must take the neighborhood movies into consideration. They can be treated like classroom films. A partial list of recent films would include *Private Worlds* (for Welfare of the Unfortunates in Civics), *Black Fury* (for weapons of labor and capital), *Make Way for Tomorrow* (for old age insecurity), *Les Miserables* (for causes of crime), *Dead End* and sequels (for slums, causes of crime), *Modern Times* (for the evils of mass production), *The Road Back* (for peace education), *Louis Pasteur* (for germ theory in biology), *A Tale of Two Cities* and Shakespearean plays (for English literature), *Rembrandt* (for art). The list is almost endless. These films present us with excellent material. The fact that they are occasionally historically inaccurate is no handicap to the experienced teacher. The tremendous advantage of these films is that they present social and economic phenomena with greater realism and vividness than can be gotten through the reading of the textbook or through oral classroom presentation.

Some of us may fear that the children may object to attempts to turn their entertainment into instruction. It has been my observation that the opposite is true. For example, *Modern Times* was not popular with our youngsters who had seen the film before our discussion. Children who hadn't seen it looked forward eagerly to seeing it after its implications were explained. Suffice to say, their enjoyment was multiplied greatly by understanding.

IV. SUGGESTED FILM TECHNIQUES

It must be emphasized at the outset that there is no one perfect and universal method of teaching film lessons any more than there is one universal way in which to conduct a recitation. An attempt is

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made here, therefore, to supply a guide or a general framework which the teacher can adapt to his or her own needs.

All film lessons must have four basic steps. These steps are:

1. *Preparation by the teacher.*
2. *Preparation of the class.*
3. *Exhibition of the film.*
4. *Follow-up after the film.*

A. PREPARATION BY THE TEACHER

First, of course, the film must be selected. Lists of films or single titles are usually furnished to the teacher, who must carefully hand-pick films according to the criteria we have set up for educational films. This, of course, entails the previewing of any film being considered for possible use. It is a mistake to depend entirely upon titles or descriptive paragraphs in catalogues when called upon to select films. Titles are usually uninformative if not misleading. What, for example, do titles like *The Challenge, Hands,* and *Let's Go America* tell us? Descriptive paragraphs are usually very brief. They may stress one phase only. A film may be suitable for different topics or even subjects depending upon the aspect that the teacher stresses. Catalogue writers rarely appreciate this fact.

Having selected a film for a definite topic in the syllabus, the teacher must then decide what the aim of the film lesson is to be.

B. PREPARATION OF THE CLASS FOR THE FILM

This is a most important step. Most films present a wealth of material which may or may not be pertinent to the aim of the lesson. We must bear in mind that the films were not made specifically for our lesson. They must be adapted to our needs. Simply showing a film without any preparation for it may give the class a fairly good idea about the contents of the film. What will definitely be lacking is the accomplishment of the aim of the lesson. The youngsters may be impressed by material that is extraneous to the lesson but allow to go by completely unnoticed the material that the teacher expected them to get. Especially is this so when the producer decides to maintain interest in the film by the introduction of romance or comedy.

The class must be so conditioned that pupils will have the proper mental set or be in a receptive frame of mind for those things that you want them to see in the film. An interesting experiment is to prepare two different classes for the same film but to condition each to look at the film from different perspectives. Then test each class first on the aspect you prepared them for and then on the aspect you did not prepare them for. For example, two Civics 2 classes may be given lessons based on the film entitled *Hands*. In class 1 the film may be used to teach unemployment while in Class 2 the same film may be used to teach interdependence. Each class should be given the preparation suitable for the topic. After the film showing, test each class on both unemployment and interdependence. The results of this test should serve as a striking demonstration of the importance of preparation.

There are many methods of preparing a class for a film. The simplest method—to be used if time is short—is to present the class with a list of key questions whose answers they are to seek in the film. An improvement over this method is to discuss the topic with the class, guiding the discussion so that it will lead up to those key questions which are to be answered by the film. An adaptation is simply to introduce the topic and then have the class suggest the questions which they would want the film to answer. Finally, after a discussion which leads to the subject of the film, the class can be asked to anticipate what the film will show. A bright English class might, if there is ample time, even write a scenario for the film with the object of later comparison with the film about to be shown.

C. EXHIBITION OF THE FILM

Having prepared the class, the next step is the actual exhibition of the film. Here teachers usually create their own methods as they do in recitations. In general, the procedure should depend upon the nature of the film and the aim of the particular lesson. There seems to be some difference of opinion on these two points. First, should the teacher intersperse his own comments while the class is watching? Should the teacher stop the film at different spots for closer examination of important scenes or for questioning on parts of the film?

In the case of sound films, of course, there is little choice. It is extremely difficult to intersperse remarks. The sound film makes certain that there are few or no silent moments—even if it is necessary to include music. This makes silent films far superior, in the opinion of many, to sound films as far as pedagogy is concerned. The actual showing of silent films should not be a passive exercise. There should be a running stream of comment by the teacher directing attention to important scenes that answer questions raised during the preparation, explaining scenes that are not clear, making corrections where the film is in error, and pointing out omissions in the film. Pupils should be permitted, without raising their hands first, to make comments and ask questions about different scenes. There is no doubt that the speed of the film is far too great to allow children to raise hands first. Of course, the objection to this procedure is that the informality may lead to disciplinary troubles. Where the teacher does not have good discipline, film lessons should not be

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used at all. It should be borne in mind that the room is darkened and the teacher's attention frequently claimed by mechanical details. Therefore, if a class cannot be allowed to act informally during the showing, they should not be given a film lesson.

In some lessons, especially in sciences, where the details of the film are stressed, the film may be shown in "bits" with appropriate questioning on each showing to further the development of the lesson. Similarly, where the projection machine permits, the machine should be stopped at important scenes for examination of significant "still" scenes. The frequency of "still" scenes and complete stops for discussion or questioning should be limited in number. The frequent stopping of the machine for discussion, because it is annoying, may kill the interest of the class in the film.

Where the teacher feels that a certain sequence of scenes is vital for the complete understanding of the film, the scenes should be rerun. This can be done on most projection machines.

It can be seen that the teacher is a fairly busy person even during the showing of the film. For that reason, it is important that all the mechanical details connected with the machine should be taken care of by trained operators—even if the teacher can manipulate the machine himself. It is recommended that each department where films are used should organize such a squad so that the teacher will not find it necessary to attend to the mechanical details if he is to have a film lesson.

D. FOLLOW-UP AFTER THE FILM EXHIBITION

This is a very vital part of the lesson. It is usually the part of the lesson that "clinches" those things that you wished to cover. It "ties up" loose ends, directs those things they have seen to the aims of the lesson, corrects erroneous impressions conveyed by or errors of fact in the film, supplies gaps in the films, permits the teacher to point out any efforts at propaganda in the film and finally to clear up doubts in their minds. Upon the success of this part of the lesson depends the value of your entire film lesson.

A few suggested procedures of follow-up are offered here. Where time is limited, an assignment, based on the questions suggested in the preparation, will have to serve the purpose. This is the least satisfactory method since it does not permit the complete achievement of the objectives of this part of the lesson listed above. A written quiz is similar to the assignment method. The third method, an oral discussion and recitation based on the film, is a far superior method. It gives ample opportunity to achieve the objectives of that follow-up that we have listed. Finally, where the "scenario" method was used in the preparation, a comparison of the prepared scenario and the film could be made. Where a list of questions was drawn up by the class, answers could be given with the movie as the source.

E. CONCLUSION AND SUMMARY

In conclusion, let us stress that the film lesson should not be overused. The movie cannot replace the textbook or the teacher. It merely supplements the textbook and gives the teacher another pedagogical device. The number of film lessons given depends upon the subject, the time available, the number of good films that are available and the type of class; the slower the class the greater the use of films. Suffice it to say, the number should be limited to a few carefully selected worthwhile films.

V. WHAT REMAINS TO BE DONE

The greatest need is, of course, *teaching-films*. Our school system must join hands with the movie industry in the production of these non-profit films. The educators should explain specifically what is needed while movie people should make films embodying these ideas. Movie producers must learn that they are not teachers while teachers must learn that they are not producers. Secondly, Hollywood must make available to us the wealth of worthwhile shorts, newsreels and parts of feature films which fit into our curricula.

Numerous movements are on foot to meet the need for films. Among the better known and promising developments are the *Films for Democracy* plan and the $135,000 grant by the American Council on Education. The present supply of educational films (over 10,000 in number) will be evaluated and, after a three year period of discussion and research, a list of film needs will be submitted to Hollywood or other producers. This seems to indicate the great strides film education should soon take.

A second need is more equipment. Every school should have apparatus for both silent and sound movies together with the auxiliary apparatus. This is a step that each school can take immediately.

Thirdly, in the construction of all new buildings and wings, the greater use of film lessons should be borne in mind. Electrical outlets should be placed at convenient places. Dark window shades, electrically operated, should be installed. All of this removes the many little necessary chores that frequently discourage the teacher from using the film lesson because of its inconvenience.

Fourthly, film centers should be established, under the Bureau of Visual Aids, in central schools throughout the city. These centers should be supplied with complete libraries of films plus a clerk and a chauffeur. Any teacher desiring the use of a certain film, would then

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simply phone this clerk or send a card ordering the film, giving very short notice. The chauffeur would then deliver and later call for the film. This would permit the use of films when needed in the classroom. A start has already been made in some subjects.

Greater research must be done in this field to guarantee that we are moving in the right direction. For an excellent example of this type of work, the reader is referred to *Motion Pictures in the Classroom* by Wood and Freeman.

Finally, as the field grows, improved techniques must be developed to guarantee that our classes derive the greatest benefit from these lessons.

VI. WHAT DANGERS DO FILMS PRESENT?

There are several dangers that we must avoid if films are wisely used. First, as we have stated, almost every film whether made by the government or by a private company, has an axe to grind. To add to this, the teacher frequently has his own axe. The question of propaganda and indoctrination is a topic that has been discussed elsewhere. As far as films are concerned, it has been our experience that the propaganda of the film, while effective in the theatre, is not so dangerous in the classroom. Here, the film is taught and not merely exhibited. Frequently, the movies' "message" is turned into a boomerang by the skilled teacher.

Secondly, the film lesson must not be used for entertainment purposes. In this respect we cannot compete with the local movie house. The attempt serves only to handicap movie education.

The movie lesson should not be used as a device for wasting time. Unfortunately, it has been so used in the past. A film should be used only if it has the criteria we have listed. It should have a definite plan of attack. As a matter of fact, a real film lesson entails more physical and mental labor than any other type of lesson.

Don't overdo the film lesson. Too frequent use kills the interest in this type of lesson, and causes the use of films that are undesirable.

It has been our desire simply to arouse interest in the educational film. If the readers disagree with many or even most of our suggestions but are encouraged to make greater use of this visual aid, the purpose of this article will have been achieved.

LOUIS KUSINITZ.
Manual Training High School.

A UNITED STATES HISTORICAL FICTION LIST

For a long time we have wanted a list of historical fiction books concerning the United States in order to make our American History Reading List more valuable not only to students of the subject, but also to all others who had asked for such books. The recent output of historical novels by contemporary writers has added to the need of such a list for ready reference. Consequently, the attached bibliography was made up by checking the library shelf list against the following: Logasa's *Historical Fiction* list, *The Standard Catalog for High School Libraries* (third edition) and The Fiction Section of *The Standard Catalog for Public Libraries*. It is hoped that the brief annotations, together with the chronological and subject arrangement of the list will add to its usefulness.

DISCOVERY AND COLONIAL PERIOD

Author	*Title*	*Annotation*
Bacheller	In the Days of Poor Richard	Benjamin Franklin, 1768
Bennett	Barnaby Lee	New York and Maryland
Cooper	Deerslayer	N. Y. State Indians
	Last of the Mohicans	Washington; 1780
	Pathfinder	
	Spy	
Davis	Gilman of Reford	Harvard, 1770-1775
Field	Calico Bush	Maine
Finger	Courageous Companions	Exploration, 1505-1521
Forbes	Paradise	Early 17th century New England
Johnston	1492	Columbus—exploration
Johnston	To Have and to Hold	Virginia
Pyle	Story of Jack Ballister's	
Roberts, K.	Northwest Passage	French and Indian Wars
Sublette	Scarlet Cockerel	French Huguenots in Florida, 1562-1564

REVOLUTION

Atherton	Conqueror	Hamilton, 1757-1804
Barr	Belle of Bowling Green	
	Bow of Orange Ribbon	
	Trinity Bells	
Boyd	Drums	
Chambers	Cardigan	
Churchill	Richard Carvel	Maryland, 1776-1790
Edmonds	Drums Along the Mohawk	New York State
Forbes	The General's Lady	New England
Ford	Janice Meredith	1776-1789
Frederic	In the Valley	New England
Johnston	Lewis Rand	Jefferson and Burr
Lancaster	Guns of Burgoyne	New York State

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Author	Title	Annotation
Mitchell, S. W.	Hugh Wynne	1776-1781; a Quaker in Washington's Army Jefferson and Hamilton
Page, E.	Tree of Liberty	
Roberts, K. W	Rabble in Arms	
Sabatini	Carolinian	South Carolina, 1775-1779
Thompson	Alice of Old Vincennes	Indiana, 1778

Post Revolution

Meigs	Clearing Weather	New England
Skinner	White Leader	Tennessee

Pre-Civil War

Bacheller	A Man for the Ages	Lincoln, 1831-1865
Masters	Children of the Market Place	
Snedeker	Downright Dencey	Massachusetts
Stowe	Uncle Tom's Cabin	Slavery, 1850-1851
Young	Heaven Trees	Plantation life, 1850-1860

Civil War and Reconstruction

Allee	Susanna and Tristram	Slavery, underground railway
Allen	Action at Aquila	
Andrews	The Perfect Tribute	Lincoln
Bacheller	Eben Holden	Greeley, Lincoln, 1861
Bacheller	Father Abraham	Lincoln, 1861-1865
Boyd	Marching On	
Brown	The Father	Lincoln; anti-slavery
Churchill	Crisis	Lincoln
Crane	Red Badge of Courage	1861-1864
Fox	Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come	Kentucky
Heyward	Peter Ashley	
Hough	North of 36	Reconstruction, 1868-1870; cattle drive from Texas to Kansas
Johnston	Cease Firing	
Johnston	Long Roll	"Stonewall" Jackson
Mitchell, M.	Gone With the Wind	Georgia
Morrow	Forever Free	Lincoln
Page, T. N.	Red Rock	
Singmaster	Swords of Steel	Gettysburg
Wister	Lady Baltimore	South
Young	So Red the Rose	South

Westward Expansion

Binns	The Land is Bright	Oregon trek, 1850's
Boyd	Bitter Creek	West in the 70's
Churchill	The Crossing	Daniel Boone, G. R. Clark, Andrew Jackson
Hough	54-40 or Fight	Calhoun before the northwest boundary treaty and annexation of Texas
Meigs	Railroad West	Northern Pacific R. R.
Morrow	We Must March	Western exploration, Oregon
Morrow	On to Oregon	Journey from Missouri to Oregon; Kit Carson
Norris	Octopus	Railroads and the West

Frontier and Pioneer Life

Author	Title	Annotation
Aldrich	A Lantern in Her Hand	Nebraska, 1864-1890
Bojer	Emigrants	Norwegian settlement in the Middle West
Boyd	Long Hunt	Daniel Boone
Cather	My Antonia	Nebraska
Cather	O Pioneers	Nebraska
Ferber	Cimarron	Oklahoma, petroleum industry and trade
Hough	Covered Wagon	Pioneering to the Pacific
Lane	Let the Hurricane Roar	
Lovelace	Early Candlelight	
MacGowan	The Trail of the Little Wagon	Utah and the Mormons; Buffalo Bill; journey to California
McNeely	The Jumping-Off Place	Homesteading in Dakota, 1870-1890
Roberts, E.	The Great Meadow	Kentucky
Rolvaag	Giants in the Earth	South Dakota, 1880-1890
Wescott	The Grandmothers	Wisconsin life
White, S. E.	Long Rifle	

Nineteenth Century

Aldrich	Story of a Bad Boy	New England boyhood
Barnes	Yankee Ships and Yankee Sailors	War of 1812
Edmonds	Rome Haul	1850-1860
Garland	Main-travelled Roads	Middle West
Hawthorne	House of Seven Gables	Puritan life
Hawthorne	Scarlet Letter	Puritan life
Hergesheimer	Java Head	Salem, Mass., in 1840's
Howells	Rise of Silas Lapham	Story of a self-made American in the latter 19th century
Lynn	Stepdaughter of the Prairie	Prairie life
Marquand	The Late George Apley	New England
Watts	Nathan Burke	Mexican War, 1848-49
White, W. A.	Certain Rich Man	Big business, 1890-1914

Cowboy Life

Adams	Log of a Cowboy	Cattle drive from Mexico to Montana
James	All in the Day's Riding	Contemporary life
	Big Enough	
	Cow Country	
	Sand	
	Smoky	
	Sun Up	
Wister	Virginian	1890-1900

Regional

Allen, J. L.	Kentucky Cardinal	Kentucky life
Armer	Waterless Mountain	Indian life in Arizona
Burlingame	Three Bags Full	Early New York
Cable	Old Creole Days	New Orleans
Cannon	Red Rust	Minnesota
Carroll	As the Earth Turns	Maine

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Regional (*Cont.*)

Author	*Title*	*Annotation*
Cather	Death Comes for the Archbishop	Missions in New Mexico
Cather	One of Ours	Nebraska, World War period
Chapman	Happy Mountain	
	Homeplace	Tennessee valley
Chase	Mary Peters	Maine—contemporary
	Silas Crockett	Maine from 1830 to the present
Churchill	Coniston	New England, 1860-1870
Clemens	Adventures of Huckleberry Finn	
	Life on the Mississippi	Mississippi River
Clemens	Adventures of Tom Sawyer	
	Pudd'nhead Wilson	Missouri life
Coffin	Lost Paradise	Maine
	Portrait of an American	Maine
De la Rhue	Spanish Trails of California	
Eggleston	The Graysons: A Story of 1830-1840	
	Abe Lincoln	Life in central Illinois
Eggleston	Hoosier School-boy	Indiana and Ohio, 1840
Ferber	Come and Get It	Middle West—lumber
Ferber	Dawn O'Hara	New York and Milwaukee
Ferber	Show Boat	Mississippi River
Ferber	So Big	Middle West—agriculture
Fisher	Brimming Cup	Vermont
Fisher	Hillsboro People	Vermont
Fisher	Rough-hewn	Vermont
Forbes	O Genteel Lady	Boston
Ford	Honorable Peter Stirling	New York in the 1870's; Grover Cleveland
Fox	Trail of the Lonesome Pine	Kentucky
Garland	Long Trail	1898, Klondike rush for gold
Grey	Drift Fence	The West
Hergesheimer	Three Black Pennys	Pennsylvania steel industry
Irving	Rip Van Winkle	New York State
Jackson	Ramona	1875, Indian mission work in California
		Cape Cod life
Lincoln, J. C.	Any of his stories	Old Northwest
Minnigerode	Black Forest	Grand Canyon and the Arizona desert
Morrow	Enchanted Canyon	Chicago wheat pit
Norris	The Pit	Illinois
Peatie	Prairie Grove	New York City
Poole	The Harbor	Florida
Rawlings	The Yearling	Southwest
Richter	Sea of Grass	Tenant farmers—South
Roberts, E.	The Time of Man	Early Maine
Roberts, K.	Arundel	New England—19th century
Santayana	The Last Puritan	Indiana, community living experiment, 1830-1850
Snedeker	The Beckoning Road	South
Stribling	The Store	Middle West
Tarkington	Alice Adams	Indiana journalists
Tarkington	Gentlemen from Indiana	Middle West
Tarkington	Magnificent Ambersons	New York State, 19th century
Westcott	David Harum	New York City, 1870
Wharton	Age of Innocence	Michigan lumbermen
White, S. E.	Blazed Trail	1849 California gold rush
White, S. E.	Gold	

Contemporary Life

Author	*Title*	*Annotation*
Barnes	Within This Present	
Barnes	Years of Grace	
Bianco	Winterbound	
Fisher	Deepening Stream	Contemporary life in Connecticut
Lewis	Babbitt	
	It Can't Happen Here	
	Main Street	

Short Stories

Becker	Golden Tales of New England	
	Golden Tales of The Old South	
	Golden Tales of Our America	
	Golden Tales of the Prairie States	
Clark & Lieber	Great Short Stories of the World	
Foley	America in Story	
Harte	Luck of Roaring Camp	
Hawthorne	Snow Image	
Henry	Four Million	
Heydrick	Americans All	
Howells	Great Modern American Stories	Stories of various localities
Jessup	Representative American Short Stories	An anthology from 1788-1921
Laselle	Short Stories of the New America	Contemporary authors
Mirrielees	Twenty-two Short Stories of America	
Ramsey	Short Stories of America	

Fannie Dubofsky.
James Monroe High School.

HIGH POINTS

DO STUDENTS LIKE HONOR CLASSES?

How do students in honor classes regard this new honor system? What advantages, what disadvantages do they see? What suggestions for improvement of content or methods can they make? These questions formed the basis of a questionnaire given to all honor students after a trial of three months. No signatures were required and no teacher had anything to do with the compilation of results. The president of the General Organization, the boy leader of Arista, and the editor of the school magazine, acted as a committee of three to conduct a preliminary meeting in which the precise wording of the questionnaire was decided upon. At that meeting, representatives from each honor class were present and they were given an opportunity to carry on a lively

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discussion of the topic. Students from stenography classes took down all comments made and later gave the committee a transcript.

At a monthly faculty meeting the student committee reported upon the results of the questionnaire as follows:

Question:

What are the advantages of honor classes?

Answers:

18% found that the chance to preside and speak before the class was a decided advantage. They also found that there were additional opportunities for study.

33% stated that the informality and the increased scope added to the interest and enjoyment of the class.

32% found that the rapid advancement owing to the increased scope was worth while and desirable. Of the above, 50% found that this rapid advancement was owing to the fact that there were no slow students. 13% stated that this was owing to the presence of mentally alert students.

4% stated that the feeling of class pride was an advantage.

4% found that they had more free time for extra-curricular activities owing to less homework.

3% stated that higher marks were an added incentive.

1% stated the individual attention shown by the teachers was a help.

1% stated that smaller classes aided in developing a spirit of co-operation between the teacher and the pupils.

Question:

What are the disadvantages of honor classes?

Answers:

40% found that the homework was too lengthy and difficult.

15% found that there was too much outside research work.

12% found the progress too rapid.

10% stated that there was no detailed explanation in the honor classes.

18% found that the teachers expected too much and took too much for granted.

7% found that the marking of papers was too severe.

3% found that the teachers were unsatisfactory.

8% complained that their averages dropped considerably.

7% found competition in honor classes undesirable.

7% stated that they were unable to finish the required work owing to the development of an indifferent attitude in the honor classes.

10% found that egotism was developed because of the fact that the students "Ran the Class."

2% found that it was a decided disadvantage to be forced into an honor class.

Question:

What constructive suggestions can you offer about the honor classes?

Answers:

24% stated that there should be less homework.

8% stated that the students should be allowed to pick their own honor class.

8% stated that there should be no special examinations given to honor classes.

9% found that more factual notes and discussions should be included in the program of an honor class.

7% suggested that less be taken for granted by the teachers.

4% suggested that students conduct honor classes.

4% suggested that honor classes be conducted in the same manner as an ordinary class.

3% stated that definite assignments would be a distinct help.

9% suggested that markings for honor classes be more lenient.

1% stated that a student be limited to one honor class.

4% stated that English honor classes were quite satisfactory.

5% stated that the honor class system was entirely satisfactory.

4% stated that honor classes should be abolished.

19% made no comment.

* * *

The committee was careful to explain that the three percent who grumbled about teachers were to be expected in any normal group of students.

At the conclusion of the students' report, two members of the faculty, one representing the teachers; another, the chairmen, gave their views of honor classes. Although time did not permit a general faculty discussion, individual comments by teachers answering points raised by the students were as follows:

1. Membership in honor classes to be dependent upon the choice of the student as well as the teacher.
2. No insistence upon students being in more than one honor class.
3. Names of students to be sent to grade advisers before end of term and interviews arranged to help students select particular honor class.
4. Aptitude tests to select students for honor classes.
5. Departmental meetings to continue the discussion.
6. Interdepartmental meetings of teachers of honor classes for the purpose of considering possible fusion or correlation.
7. Visits by teachers of honor classes to each other and to other schools.

LUCETTA HARKNESS.
Bayside High School.

SEX EDUCATION IN A HEALTH EDUCATION PROGRAM

"May I be excused from 'gym' today?" From time to time Health Education teachers receive many re-

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quests from students to be excused from Health Education. These excuses range from "forgetting a 'gym' suit" to "being terribly sick." Every high school girl, in the course of her four years of study, will want to be excused for a day or two. These reasons vary from valid ones to absurd ones.

I shall mention several excuses:

1. "I left my 'gym' suit on the trolley."
2. "The painters are painting our apartment and my mother packed away my suit."
3. "I washed my suit and it isn't dry."
4. "My suit's all torn and I can't afford to buy a new one."
5. "I loaned my 'gym' suit to my girl friend and she forgot to return it."
6. "My sister takes P. T. today, and she is using the suit."
7. "I left my things in the closet overnight, and the janitor took them."
8. "I just got sick"; or "I just got unwell."

There are hundreds of other excuses which can be easily added to this list by other teachers of Health Education.

These excuses are dealt with tact and understanding, tempered with the teacher's sense of justice and discrimination.

But the one excuse which I am concerned about right now, and which has been of paramount importance to me in all my teaching career is that last reason—that of being "unwell."

Our required health examinations given by family or school physicians have made the work of a Health Education teacher a bit more complicated and intensive as far as the health of her class is concerned. While we "follow up" the procuring of eye glasses, arranging with a hospital or clinic for a metabolism test, encouraging doctors' advices on diet and rest, and giving corrective exercises, we very seldom regard this phase of sex education (I use this term "sex education" for want of a better term), in any serious light except as an inevitable situation which we can do very little with.

True, we can do very little about this except to excuse the girl and let it go at that. But, to my mind, it goes further than just excusing her.

To that end, I have planned a very direct and systematic set of rules which have been very satisfactory.

It has been our custom here at Morris to provide one excuse per month for those girls who need it. Of course, there are always a few who will avail themselves of any privileges, sometimes taking advantage of such privileges. I am not referring to that type of individual.

For those girls wishing to be excused for the day, the following rules have been set aside to be interpreted intelligently and obeyed without question:

1. Written note, specifically stating the reason for excuse, must be handed in.
2. Complete preparation (which means the girl must be fully dressed in gym outfit: suit, sox, and sneakers).
3. No reading, talking, writing or studying during the entire period.
4. Excused girl sits in the gymnasium to observe the lesson and is responsible for that lesson.

Fortunately, there are never more than two or three girls excused at a time. This is due perhaps to the fact that my gymnasium is too small to accommodate more than eighty students at a time. In larger gymnasiums, the proportion would be greater.

To facilitate and expedite clerical recording, I keep a small index box with an alphabetically arranged set of cards.

When a student hands her written note to me or to any one of a squad of "desk monitors," the facts, such as name, class, date and reason of excuse are jotted down on a library card. This card is inserted in the index box and kept for future reference.

Since a girl is privileged only one day per month, these "dated" notes serve a fine purpose as is obviously seen. We can readily observe any irregularities on the part of a girl's menstrual cycle. If she wishes to be excused again, say, within two weeks, this is a very appropriate time to check up.

In the course of my teaching experience, I have found this method of "follow-up" very efficient. In almost all cases, my reference to the filed medical blank very seldom, if ever, revealed any unusual condition. This became known, usually through a mother's willing information or a pupil's own admissions. Again, this same pupil might frequent the infirmary much too often.

How can we know that she may be suffering from dysmenorrhea, amenorrhea, leucorrhea, or other disturbances which may or may not have been noted by the family or school physician? It is quite obvious, then, that, in this way, we may be checking or preventing at *this* time an ailment which later may become a serious or perhaps chronic illness, eventually affecting the girl's future, in health, in happiness, and possibly in a fruitful family life.

My Health Education office has in it a hospital bed which is in constant use throughout the day. Since we have no nurse, I encourage students to give service in the form of Infirmary Aids. They make up the bed; make "patients" comfortable; keep the office tidy; quiet and dark (except when the bed is not being occupied); record the names, date and time of all girls who come to the infirmary (also

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called the Health Education office) for any rest period or a pass to go home. In addition, they help in the regular medical follow-up work which is in itself a tremendous task. I have found that, in many instances, a rest of a period or two will be all that a girl needs to offset "terrible cramps," stomach upsets, nausea, or general weakness.

This unique service on the part of the pupils brings them into close touch with their fellow schoolmates, thus creating attitudes of understanding, sympathy, and tolerance. This makes for a happy, workable situation between pupil and teacher.

This genial combination of Health follow-up work and Physical Activities brings the Health Education teacher to the finest and fullest interpretation of her job. Truly a Health Education teacher literally teaches Health.

To show how little the average mother realizes the importance of her daughter's natural and periodic conditions, may I quote from a written note handed to me by a pupil and signed by her mother: "Will you please excuse my daughter from P. T. today as she has the administration."

ADELINE D. GENADIO.

Morris High School.

SPECIES—FIRST TERMER

How to Recognize It

When you see, in the school halls, a mite lugging a shiny briefcase filled with heavy books, you have before you the species—first termer. He carries more books than a senior preparing for five Regents', and would rather die than leave one at home.

In your official class, you know you've got this species when every one of the forty-nine or so on your register keeps asking questions. No matter if the other forty-eight have asked the same question. Each one must get his own answer. And he knows practically nothing. "Why do I have to have my program card stamped?" "Where do I go for the study period?" "Where is the lunchroom?" "Where is the library?" "What time must we be in school?" "Who dismisses us at three o'clock?" "Who is Mr. ——, who wants to see me?" and so on forever.

The subject teacher learns to know the species quickly. She had better. In her class the question disease is just as virulent. "What page?" "What book?" "What answer?" "Why?" "Why?" "Why?" But the instinct for self-expression is stronger even than the need to question. A first termer must talk! He must express *his* opinion. He must give *his* answer. He must tell what happened to *his* uncle and *his* grandmother. Sometimes, with an impetuous gesture, he tries to pull down the other fellow's upraised hand, so that there will be less competition. I had a first termer once who was practically inconsolable if he wasn't called on every time. If he couldn't say what *he* would have done if he had been in the graveyard with Tom Sawyer, he would pout for the rest of the period. Often I could hear him muttering "Yuh didn't call on me!" It took a whole term to teach him to relax a little.

And how the first termers love to do things! Just say to a first term class, "I want someone to —" and, despite the fact that they don't know what you want someone to do, every hand in the class flies up. The teacher who knows the species well, spends nights racking her brain for jobs for them to do. Every first termer must have a job. In addition to the usual class officers, I have had to add a secretary at the board each day, a chief of secretaries, a distributor of books, a collector of books, a distributor of papers, a collector of papers, and so forth. The most coveted job, is, of course, board monitor. I have one now who loves his work so much that every time my attention is somewhere else, he dashes up to the board to erase. I thought I'd trained him to wait for the end of the period, but every once in a while when I turn around to refer to some writing, I find a blank board. And the little efficiency expert smiles proudly. In a first term civics class, I asked the students to list their jobs in the school. One boy wrote wistfully, "I hope someday to be a board eraser."

What To Do With It

"Trailing clouds of glory do we come." If you've ever had first termers along with seventh or eighth termers, you know what the quotation means. Ask a seventh term class a question and it's five minutes before anyone can muster up enough energy to speak. Ask a first term class a question, or to help you mark papers, or to draw some illustrations for extra credit, or to run up five flights to get a book, and everyone in the class is fighting to be allowed to do it. Their enthusiasm is infinite, and they love to work. They'll run the teacher ragged "ef she don't watch out!"

But they'll reward her too. If she can think up interesting projects, they'll work like beavers. I had a class that wrote a book of original myths, after reading those of the Greeks and Romans. Half the class learned to type just to be able to type the stories. The other half descended on their typing teachers with millions of questions about stencilling. The class was divided into editors who read, selected and corrected the stories, artists who drew illustrations for the stories, typists, stencillers, mimeographers, arrangers to organize the sheets of the book, and, finally, staplers to clip the pages together. Although we spent many class periods discussing problems connected with the book, most of the work was done outside of class,

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and they loved it. I had to push them out of school at five o'clock. They adored getting spots of mimeograph ink on their clothes, as proof of their work. Most of the typing was a pretty mess, but they were quite pleased to do it over three or four times. Their ingenuity in the face of problems made their teacher feel humble. There were many black moments when she might have wavered. But they—never. Not first termers!

This then is the species—restless, eager, little rugged individualists. To turn them into what we call coöperative citizens is a monumental task. But it is exciting. So, if you have first termers to work with, talk coöperation until it begins to haunt you in your dreams, teach everything in the form of a game, give everybody a chance to say everything he thinks, let everybody have a special job to do. One of these days, they'll turn into coöperative, well-behaved, enthusiastic second termers. But that's another story—.

NORA TAUBMAN.

Seward Park High School.

A WAY WITH POETRY

"Of course you dislike poetry,—at least most of you do, I'm afraid. Let's take a sort of Gallup Poll to find out just what the situation is."

We do—only to find these results:

Like poetry—(brave souls, raising reluctant hands, some braving obvious scorn, others currying Teacher's favor)—6.

Dislike poetry—(anxious to tell you why to dispel any notion that they include teacher in their general disdain)—21.

Indifferent — (with three boys wildly waving arms, containing themselves with great difficulty)—12.

"Well, what's the difficulty, Hoffman?"

"That's an unfair question, Mr. T."

Shocked, I remonstrate, "What do you mean 'unfair'?"

"Well," he says, "you can't ask a fellow whether he likes '*pomes*.'"

"Po-ems," I interrupt.

"O.K., po-*ems*," he continues, "It's like asking whether a feller likes sports. I like some, but not others. How'm I supposed to answer? Some po-*ems* are not bad," he admits, reluctantly.

He has something there—and we pursue it, until we distinguish *some* from *all*—in poetry, movies, teachers, X race and Y nationality. So much accomplished, we go on to investigate the reasons for whatever dislike exists. We list them in approximately this order:

1. Had to memorize it
2. No student choice permitted
3. Too much analysis
4. Teacher did all the reading
5. Teachers didn't read well
6. Poems were too hard, too easy, not interesting.

"But we all like poetry!" I tell them. To allay the signs of skepticism before they grow to open incredulity, I relieve their minds by reminding them of our common fondness for songs. (They've memorized the lyrics, by the way, without coercion—because they wanted to,—even one curious one about "putting rhythm in my nursery rhymes.")

"Do you remember any poems you learned as a youngster?" We indulge in an orgy of Mother Goose—with which we all have fun, reciting some together—and allowing some modern variations, like:

Hickory Dickory Dock
The mouse ran up the clock
The clock struck one—
Lunch!

or,

The clock struck one,
The others escaped unharmed . . .

"But what about that anti-Poetry society? Who started it—since you liked is as 'kids' and still like it as songs? Who robbed that joy, killed that spark?"

"Let's have a trial," suggests Garibaldi, "with a jury, 'n a judge, 'n everything. Let's find out 'Who killed poetry' . . ."

They do—with all the trimmings. It's all done in verse, of course, after due reference to Gilbert and Sullivan's *Trial by Jury*. The evidence — poems — recited, read, and dissected—is paraded in the courtroom. So are the witnesses. By the way, we teachers—not "Po-ems"—turn out to be the defendants.

The verdict is pronounced by the jury—Guilty. The sentence—Recommendation of Clemency—only because Poetry, it is discovered, is not dead at all, but can be revived.

We proceed to the task, after I have taken a solemn vow for all teachers——a) to make Poetry a source of fun; b) to let the pupils choose what they like (which many select from the book in their hands, Louis Untermeyer's excellent collections—with noteworthy foreword, afterword and notes); c) to give no homework or memorization. However, if they wish to prepare a radio program — amateur hour with a prize for the best reader and best poem, or if they insist on a campfire reading program, who am I to deny them?

ABRAHAM TAUBER.

The Bronx High School of Science

PRUNING THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL HISTORY BOOKS

The Textbook Committee of the Association of History Teachers has presented three papers on history instruction in the elementary schools. These papers pertained to militarism, democracy, and economic history. We anticipate, among other objections, the following reaction: "Some of those ideas are all right but we can't include them in the course of study—we really haven't the time, considering all the other things we must teach."

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This attitude is untenable. In the course of each of the above-mentioned papers numerous suggestions have been made that certain sections be deleted because they conveyed concepts either false or misleading. In addition, this paper aims to suggest other ways we may clear the way for these more vital elements of social studies instruction. It is the writer's thesis that a large amount of historical data, found in most textbooks, could be removed with considerable advantage to all. This historical lumber or deadwood has no bearing upon an interpretation of contemporary society, crowds out significant topics, and serves to confuse social studies with the monotonous recital of miscellaneous past events. "There must be a material reduction in the amount to be learned."[1]

To make our conclusions as conservative and valid as possible we have decided to refer to the most popular set of textbooks in use today in our elementary schools.[2] The following names have been culled from these books. How many of them can you clearly identify with some historical event, you high school teacher in other departments, or you high school history teacher, or even you first assistant in history?

NAMES OF PEOPLE

Almy, Andrews, Astrup, Bailey, Bird Woman, Bissell, Block, Bronk, Brown, Butler (Gen.), Canonicus, Clark (Parson), Colton, Corbin, Crazy Horse, Del Cano, de Peyster, de Vries, Diego, Dom Pedro, Dongon, Drake (E.L.), Duryea, Endicott, Gist, Gorges (not Gorgas), Hall, Halleck, Hamilton (H.), the Inca (a person), Kieft, Knowlton, Lansing, Lincoln (Gen.), Lovell, Mason (Senator), Montgomery, Massasoit, Oark, Packenham, Palma, Parker (not Dorothy), Pemberton, Pequot, Philip, Phillips (Wm.), Pitcairn, Preston, Quincy, Read, Roelansten, Ross, Rowlands, Samoset, Shafter, Shippen, Siwanoy, Smith (Job), Squanto, Stoeckl, Sullivan, Tallmadge, Thomson, Thorstein, Throgmorton, Tompkins, Tonty, Toral, Vail, Van Dyck (not the painter), Van Twiler, Whittlesey, Winton, Yates.

NAMES OF PLACES

Aisne River, Cahokia, Cape Breton Island, Cerro Gordo, Danville, Esopus, Fort Beargrass, Fort Crevecoeur, Gaillard Cut, Heart's Content Bay, the Hollow Way, Horseshoe Bend, Independence Bay, Kanawha, King's Bay, Lachine Rapids, La Rabida, Little Pigeon Creek, Mackinac, Strait of Mackinaw, McLean farm, Mesilla Valley, Nauvoo, Nolin Creek, North Cape, Oil Creek, Port Hudson, Prospect Hill, Ripon, Scrooby, Tappan Zee.

NAMES OF THINGS

The Adventure, the Agamemnon, the Algonquin, the Ark, the Best Friend of Charleston, the Congress, the Cumberland (not the road), the Discovery, the Dove, the Drake, the Edward, the Endeavor, the Fram, the great Eastern, the Griffin, the Illinois, the Lexington, the Little Sarah, the Maria Theresa, the Niagara, the Olympia, the Peacock, the Ranger, the Resolution, the Seneca Chief, the Shannon, the Speedwell, the Tiger of Amsterdam, the Victoria, the Vulture.

In conclusion, the Committee criticizes history instruction in the elementary schools for the following reasons:

1. Insufficient attempts have been made, by syllabus and textbook, to tie up the history of our country with contemporary problems, economic, political, and social. This implies a vast task of inclusion and exclusion.
2. Historical accuracy has too often been sacrificed for dramatic effect.
3. Attitudes and ideals should be more carefully considered. (In connection with 2 and 3, we might note that imaginary-history that requires later corrections might very well breed undue cynicism or utter disregard for the truth.)

It is the hope of the Committee that these reports will stimulate syllabus and textbook revision along the lines suggested.

ABRAHAM GEDULDIG.
Haaren High School.

[1] Horn, Ernest, *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies*, Scribners, N. Y., 1937.

[2] Reynolds and Taylor, *Required History*, Noble & Noble, N. Y., rev. ed.

REVISED HISTORICAL VIEWPOINTS

"WAR GUILT" IN THE HISTORY TEXTBOOKS OF FRANCE AND GERMANY.

Certain French and German historians met in Paris late in 1935 to examine the corrections it would be desirable to make in the schoolbooks of the two countries in order to harmonize them with the results of scientific research. As a result of their labors they adopted forty articles of agreement with some reservations on the facts concerning the wars, diplomacy, and politics of French-German relations since 1648. As agreed, the resolutions were printed in several French educational and historical publications. Political difficulties prevented the publication in more than one German publication in 1937. The German delegation, in effect, was disavowed by the German Government. The work of this French-German commission and the purpose and spirit of it may well be illustrated by some quotations from its report.

Article I of the agreement declared that the committee was in agreement that French kings did not pursue a policy of "natural frontiers." This was a conception of certain political theorists. The French and German professors differed, however, as to the role played by feeling of nationality. The German members believed that the conquests of Frederick II took place on territory of German nationality, while the French members felt that this distinction had

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no justification from a historical point of view.

Article V dealt with Alsace-Lorraine. The committee agreed that it was German in speech and culture through the Middle Ages, at the time of the Reformation and after 1648; but that, as a result of the French Revolution of 1789, it was fully absorbed in the national body politic of France. They would modify German textbooks to include the French viewpoint with the German. They would cease describing Alsace-Lorraine a "purely German territory" citing the protest of the deputies of Alsace-Lorraine in the Reichstag in 1871 against the conquest by Germany. The French textbooks would indicate the reasons why in 1871 the Germans regarded the annexation as a legitimate procedure, except for the French speaking people of Lorraine which was annexed, on their own (German's) admission, for strategic reasons.

In Article IX it was agreed that both French and German statesmen sought peace between the two countries in the period 1871-1890. Consequently French textbooks should omit statements to the effect that the German Empire wished to "impose its domination on the whole of Europe." German textbooks should minimize the idea of French revenge in view of the French opposition to the Boulanger movement and its collapse.

With regard to the events of 1904-1905 the commission agreed in Article XIII that the Anglo-French agreement of 1904 was in no sense an alliance. It was, however, likely to injure German economic interests in Morocco. The resignation of Delcassé while desired by Rouvier, president of the French Council of Ministers, was demanded by the German Government which made a diplomatic démarche on the matter. German policy in the Moroccoan question resorted to ill-considered methods, which were bound to arouse uneasiness in France. The German committee members pointed out the peaceful intent of their government since it did not make war in 1905 when circumstances arising out of the Russo-Jap war were favorable to her. The French members felt that the Moroccoan question could and should have been settled without involving the risk of war at any moment.

Articles XX through XXXI deal with the causes of the World War: Austrian ultimatum to Serbia, Belgian Neutrality, Mobilization, atrocities and franc tireurs. The committee agreed that each government acted in fear and ignorance; from false information and not from any deliberate motive to cause war. In Article XXXI "the Committee, not being able for lack of time to discuss questions relating to the war itself: Urges them (authors of textbooks) to remove from their books anything reminiscent of wartime propaganda, to refrain from all expressions abusive of their adversaries, to recognize in equal fashion the courage and patriotic devotion of which the combatants on both sides gave proof . . . Is of the opinion that the statements on both sides concerning atrocities of which the civilian population were the victims should be made objectively * * *. For example, German textbooks ought not to speak of the war of francs tireurs in Belgium and France in 1914 without mentioning the evidence which contradicts their assertions. Similarly, French textbooks should not speak of "atrocities" committed by German troops without adding that the Germans were convinced of the existence of the bands of francs tireurs and asserted that they were acting by way of reprisal."

RALPH B. GUINNESS.
Richmond Hill High School.

[1] Bernadotte E. Schmitt: " 'War Guilt' in France and Germany," The American Historical Review, Vol. XLIII, No. 4, January 1938, pp. 321-341.

INDUSTRIAL DESIGN IN THE HIGH SCHOOL OF MUSIC AND ART

Many visitors come to the High School of Music and Art day after day and invariably they are shown the work of the Industrial Design group. Some come in skeptically, others come in with no idea of what to expect, many enter shyly with apologetic confessions that they know absolutely nothing of the subject but would like to look around. However, almost all of them leave with the statement that they had never before seen anything quite like it. With this assertion in mind I have written this article.

The Industrial Design course is probably the most unusual of three elective Studio Practice classes attended by art students in their last two years at the High School of Music and Art. The course may be elected for a year or two depending on the ability and interest shown by the student.

At this point, it might be noted that "Industrial Design" and "Industrial Arts" are terms that are used incorrectly by many people. Innumerable persons use the terms synonymously, and frequently interchange them in the course of a conversation. Educationally, "Industrial Art" is a phase of learning that concerns itself with materials, processes and production, as well as an interest in the role played by those engaged in the industries. The student learns through his experiences with materials and tools. Theoretically, the final results are examples of technical perfection; actually the product is an honest expression of the student's skill, sometimes fine, often mediocre. The final results have grown from designs laid out by someone else, or are the product of a poor design executed by the student himself.

What then is "Industrial Design"? In its simplest defining we can break the name into its two parts; Industrial pertaining to

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things in industry, and Design which is basically the beautiful arrangement of Lines and Form. "Industrial Design" then, is the composing of lines and forms artistically, and in a manner that can be produced industrially in large or small quantities. The students in Industrial Design are more interested in the design quality of the object than the technical finish, which they leave to the Industrial artists. The result, as far as our school goes, is of high caliber in terms of design, while the technical finish is very good. It is fair to assume that if the objects were produced industrially they would be an ideal combination of beauty and function.

Believing that the successful Industrial Designer is familiar with modern industrial arts and crafts as well as the principles of Design, we of the High School of Music and Art attempt to combine the two fields in as many problems as possible. It is our hope that with the continued combination of shop-work and design we will produce a type of student having a feeling for materials as well as Design. Perhaps a brief description of the work done during one term will assist in understanding what we are doing.

Roughly a term's work consists of two problems: one of which can be carried out in full size, the other a problem which is carried out in model form. No matter what the problem, certain steps are followed:

1. The preliminary sketch, or tentative solution of the problem. These sketches are tacked up and criticized by the group as a whole. When finally accepted they are ready for

2. A rough, dimensioned working drawing done in a freehand manner showing a plan and side view. The student is not bound to follow this drawing to the letter; if he can improve the practical solution of the design he has that privilege.

3. Making the object.

4. After the object has been successfully completed in three dimensional forms, a careful mechanical drawing is put on tracing paper from which a blueprint is made.

5. Three renderings are then made to give the student some training in making drawings for an imaginary client; the drawings are in contour wash and color.

It might be noted at this point that the greatest part of the working time given to the problems is devoted to the paper work designing of the object.

From this rather brief description, one can see that we are combining Design with the Industrial Arts in a way that is educationally valuable to the student inasmuch as it takes into consideration all the phases of the modern designers' work. Not only is he taught the value of Design, or the need for mechanical accuracy, but also the psychology behind what makes a fine design. Furthermore, he becomes cognizant of the difficulties of adjusting design to materials and machines in a way that makes possible a greater field for the materials as well as the designs.

EDWARD THOMAS KOEHLER.
High School of Music and Art.

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND NOTES

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

The annual convention of the National Council of Teachers of English will be held in New York City this year. The three-day meeting will be held at the Hotels Pennsylvania and New Yorker during the Thanksgiving vacation.

The local organization, the New York City Association of Teachers of English, will play host to the seven thousand teachers of English who are expected to descend upon the city on November 29th. A special Convention Committee has been appointed to make all the necessary arrangements, which include the selecting of hotel accommodations, obtaining speakers, arranging dinners, luncheons, panels, sight-seeing, entertainment, and devising such publicity events as spelling bees and information contests. The committee comprises the following:

Dr. Harold G. Campbell—*Honorary Chairman*, Alice Colvin Wright—*New York City Coördinator*, Dudley H. Miles—*General Chairman*, Harold A. Clarke—*General Arrangements*, Hortense Henenberg—*Entertainment*, Frank A. Smerling—*Finance*, Mabel A. Bessey—*Hotesses*, Vesta Davis—*Information*, Clara A. Molendky—*Membership*, A. H. Lass—*Publishers Exhibits*, J. C. Tressler—*Registration*, Mary H. Easterbrook—*School Exhibits*, Max J. Herzberg—*Director of Publicity*, Samuel Streicher—*Elementary Schools*, Blanche M. Nasi—*Junior High Schools*, Jesse Grumette—*Senior High Schools*, Franklin J. Keller—*Vocational High Schools*, Reverend William R. Kelly—*Catholic Schools*, Benjamin Burdsall—*Private Schools*, Prof. Homer A. Watt—*Colleges*.

Lists of speakers will be released shortly. Their talks will be centered about the theme of this year's convention, which is *Unifying the English Curriculum for the Student*. Elementary schools, junior high schools, senior high schools, and colleges from every part of the country will be represented at the convention to which all teachers are cordially invited.

JESSE GRUMETTE
FOR THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH.

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EDUCATORS TO TEACH TOLERANCE

An Educational Service offering to teachers and administrators throughout the country specific techniques and factual material on how to overcome intolerance and how to stimulate mutual tolerance and the ideals of American democracy was announced today by the Council Against Intolerance in America. The material is being prepared in response to requests from school superintendents, principals and teachers in every part of the country. The majority of these communications were addressed to George Gordon Battle, who, with William Allen White and Senator Barbour, co-chairmen of the Council has called attention to the growing menace of intolerance among the youth of elementary and high school age.

An active Educational Advisory Committee of distinguished educators is already at work on the material which will be ready for distribution in ample time for the fall semester. The membership of this Committee includes:

Dr. Ruth Benedict—Department of Anthropology, Columbia University

Miss Mary Gould David—Director of The Children's Department, New York Public Library

Miss Violet Edwards—Educational Director, Institute for Propaganda Analysis

Dr. Frederic Ernst—Associate Superintendent of Schools, High School Division, New York City

Dr. Alice Keliher—Commission on Human Relations, Progressive Education Association

Dr. William H. Kilpatrick—Teachers College, Columbia University

Dr. Eduard C. Lindeman—New York School of Social Work

Dr. Beryl Parker—Teacher Training, New York University

Dr. Frances Park—Josiah Macy, Jr. Foundation, former Dean of Smith College

Dr. Randolph B. Smith—Executive Secretary, Coöperative School for Teachers

Dr. Robert K. Speer — Teacher Training, New York University

Miss Alice Stewart—Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University

Mr. Frank Walser — Curriculum making and group discussion authority

Dr. Goodwin Watson — Teachers College, Columbia University

Mr. James Waterman Wise—Research Consultant, Council Against Intolerance in America

Mrs. Albion MacCormick — Administrative Secretary, Council Against Intolerance in America

Questionnaires have been sent to a thousand administrators, teachers and students, a small but country-wide sampling of opinion. From them the Council has learned the actual problems that teachers and students are meeting and much of the material is based on these findings.

REVIEWS

THE SLUMS OF NEW YORK

By Harry M. Shulman. Albert and Charles Boni.

This is a study of cultural patterns of slum areas in New York City during prosperity (1925-26) and depression (1931-32). It surveys with marked thoroughness such matters as the social world of the child, the social pattern of the immigrant neighborhood, population trends, housing, employment, health, play and recreation, crime, delinquency. Two years of field study, several years on the compilation of data, 750 families, 1500 children—an enormous job it is, meticulously executed.

What Dr. Shulman found is commonplace to every New Yorker. Even outsiders must by now be quite familiar with the slum pattern as so dramatically evoked in *Dead-End, One-Third of a Nation,* and similar plays and motion pictures. That man cannot rise to dignity (conspicuous exceptions notwithstanding) from such origins needs no laboring here. That crime, disease, cultural and social disintegration are inevitable in such surroundings seems incontrovertible. These things Dr. Shulman shows us with painstaking and relentless thoroughness. We gag not a little, however, at the author's assumption that slums can be eradicated or their influences mollified by re-education rather than rehabilitation. The slums are a challenge to education, it is true. And educators have accepted the challenge, doing their part in a work that seems endless and futile unless those agencies responsible for the creation of the slums are put to rout. An equitable economic system, playgrounds and recreational facilities, decent housing—these are the approaches that will bear quick fruit. Ultimately, it is dangerous doctrine to assume that the school may be used as a lever to move the universe. The school never has been, and it is doubtful that it ever will be the exclusive means through which society can rise to something better and higher. Something of divine discontent can be and is generated in our schools; a generous and embracing consciousness of suffering is aroused in our pupils. But the alleviation of the horrors of slum life through education is a cruel jest indeed. It is casting stones to those who ask for bread. It is, further, distracting attention from fundamental causes by suggesting facile panaceas. The slums belong to society as a whole. They can be deracinated only through concerted social effort. The slum clearance projects financed by the Federal Government, the new play facilities made available by an enlightened city administration—these are hopeful signs. They supply the leaven in which education can do its work properly and effectively: to make citizens and human

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beings out of those who have at least the bare necessities of life. Without these, the task of the school becomes one of social welfare work. This kind of temporary staving off of disaster it must and always has assumed. But this is not its fundamental task in a democracy. It is the job of government to see that its people live and earn their bread in fit surroundings. It is the task then, of education, to weld the citizenry into a happy articulate mass, conscious of its powers and obligations to itself and to its society. This is difficult enough. There is no justification for adding to the burden of molding a rising generation the added responsibilities of combating social forces set loose by savage instincts and blind greeds which the educator does not always understand and which he is rarely able to subdue even if he does understand them.

A. H. Lass.

ONE MIGHTY TORRENT: THE DRAMA OF BIOGRAPHY

By Edgar Johnson. Stackpole Sons, $3.50.

In essence, this is an anthology containing the substance of the great biographies. It is a new way of relating the history of biographical writing, more alive than the traditional history because into the fabric of this narrative Mr. Johnson has skilfully woven the very words and feelings of the biographers and their subjects. Mr. Johnson succeeds strikingly in conveying the "flavor of each life and personality," in re-creating "a vignette of the original subject, by narrative in miniature, by rich and flavorous quotation." "I have tried to remember," says Mr. Johnson, "that history and biography are about human beings, and I have tried to fill this book full of them and never forget them as human beings."

In the main, the book concerns itself with English biography though Van Wyck Brooks, Maurois, and Adams are treated where no English substitute seems available. The author's discussion of biographical methods and objectives is notable for its clarity and sanity. *One Mighty Torrent* easily takes its place with Nicolson, Maurois, and Waldo Dunn as one of the very few distinguished bits of critical and creative scholarship in this field.

A. H. L.

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GUIDING BEGINNING STUDENTS

Without changes in personnel which might unbalance the budget, many high schools have been offering consistently improved guidance to beginning pupils during the last decade. This article is an attempt to synthesize some commendable practices and proposals into a practical program. The following proceduce is suggested:

1. At least eight weeks before the term ends, the lower school should supply the high school with as complete a picture as possible of the student's present and potential personality. "Ample opportunity should be given to each higher institution to study the records of the incoming group of pupils."[1]

2. Representatives from the high school might address the graduating class of the elementary or junior high school on courses of study and subject fields. Mimeographed summaries of these talks and other materials might be distributed for discussion in the homerooms. Copies of the high school manual might be sold or loaned for intensive study and discussion during the section period. Dramatizations of high school activities, talks by men in business and professional fields, occupational films, tours through plants, directed radio listening, motion picture lists and the librarian's recommended readings on vocations and avocations are some splendid means of stimulating good student-selection of an effective high school curriculum.

3. Letters, bulletins, and pamphlets describing the objectives, requirements, facilities and courses of study in the high school, and also vocational requirements and openings, might be sent to the parents of prospective pupils. Invitations to visit the school during Freshman Day, Open School Week, or the next Parent-Teacher Meeting will help to secure the co-öperation of the pupils' parents.

4. The signature of the parent should endorse the curriculum chosen by the pupil at this time.

5. On the basis of available data, the grade adviser and schedule-maker should work out the pupils' programs using homogeneous grouping wherever possible. As Professor Langfitt says, "The daily schedule, therefore, should be based upon information derived from a careful program of guidance and, in this sense, schedule-making is a continuation of pupil guidance."[1]

6. Have new pupils report at

[1] Board of Education, City of New York, *Superintendent's Committee on Articulation and Integration*, 1937.

[1] Langfitt, R. Emerson. *The Daily Schedule and High School Organization*. The MacMillan Company, 1938, p. 193.

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least one day before the new term begins. They might be greeted by sympathetic teachers, grade advisers, and student guides; equipped with floor plans of the building, and taken on a tour of the school plant. This visit could be followed by a "get together" with light refreshments, talks by club presidents and team captains, and appropriate entertainment such as the showing of a motion picture of the school's activities. During the day, each pupil should meet his grade adviser personally. If the school is fortunate enough to have deans, they will, of course, be the leaders of this guidance program (some principals welcome the beginners in an informal talk; others, with a friendly letter.)

7. Administer standard tests as a basis for better grouping. "Attention should be focused on what the tests indicate that an individual can do in the future rather than entirely on what he has done in the past."[1] If only one test is to be administered, a reading test is recommended. The high correlation between reading scores and intelligence quotients gives the former the added advantage of remedial classification in the English Department.

8. The first few days should be spent teaching these pupils how to study, memorize, find material in the library, and use other basic techniques. Here are some of the writer's study aids:

[1] Briggs, Thomas H. *Improving Instruction*. The McMillan Company, 1938. p. 513.

HOW TO STUDY

1. Arrange your schedule so that you study the same subject at the same time everyday.
2. Put all possible distractions out of sight.
3. Jot down important points in your notebook.
4. Try to tie-up what you are studying with what you already know (use your dictionary for definitions and pronunciations.)
5. Keep asking yourself, "Why?" "How?"
6. Don't believe everything you read. Check to see if it conforms with common sense or known facts.
7. Plug away for about thirty minutes at a stretch. Then relax—walk about, eat an apple, or look out the window.
8. Just before you stop for the day, re-read your notes ALOUD.
9. Review your notes frequently during the term.
10. Ask your teacher to explain parts that puzzle you.

HOW TO READ MORE RAPIDLY

1. Read rhythmically by phrases.
2. Don't make a habit of going back and re-reading the first part of the sentence.
3. Bring the eye down on a straight line from the last word on the line above to the first word on the line below.
4. Don't follow the words with your fingers.
5. Don't form the words with your lips.
6. Read intently for about thirty minutes. Then, rest the eyes for several minutes.

HOW TO TAKE A TEST

1. Know the date, time and place.
2. Have pencils, pens, erasers, rulers, blotters, watch, etc., ready the night before in case you oversleep.
3. Get a good night's rest.
4. Arrive ten minutes ahead of time.
5. When you receive the mimeographed question papers, check the number of pages and their legibility.
6. Read the directions carefully. Underline important words; i.e., answer A *or* B—A *and* B.
7. As you read the questions, jot down in the margin of the question paper single-word clues to the answers. These first reactions may not return so readily later on (The mind is a mule.)
8. Often, the wording of one question will give you the correct answer to another question. Be alert!
9. After you have finished reading all the questions and made your selection, notice the number of minutes left. First, allow fifteen minutes for revision. Then, make a chart of the amount of time you can afford to spend on each question. This will be determined by the point value. KEEP TO THIS SCHEDULE.
10. When you have finished answering the questions, re-read instructions, questions, and ANSWERS. More people fail through carelessness than ignorance. REVISE! REVISE!! REVISE!!!
11. Common examination mistakes in English are: there for their; two-to-too; threw-through; know-no; an-and; th-the; being-because or since; quotation marks omitted; question marks omitted; different than-from; mistakes and omissions made in copying from scrap paper; too many so's, and Run-on on sentences.
12. BATTLE CRIES:

"Act as if it were impossible to fail."

Take the test; don't let the test take you.

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The "tougher" the test, the greater the glory.

This is a chance "to strut your stuff."

Hit the test hard—not the proctor.

9. The homeroom officer, who should stay with the pupils for as many consecutive terms as possible, give short, vital talks covering school activities, aims, and procedures. At the High School of Music and Art "The more comprehensive long official period is held once a week for forty-five minutes. Here, we discuss and develop important topics such as:

Getting acquainted with members of the group.

Development of desirable pupil-teacher relationships.

Self-development on the part of pupils.

Participation in the solution of school problems.

Participation in the discussion of timely problems.

How to prevent failures. The leading questions [on a special circular for discussing this item] were:

1. What causes failure in school work?

2. What difficulties have you encountered in any of your studies? The following have been considered obstacles to success in school work:

a. Postponement of work (lack of will power.)

b. Day dreaming.

c. Improper budgeting of time; too many interests.

d. Lack of interest.

e. Bad study conditions:
   (1) Noise
   (2) Poor light and air.

f. Fatigue.

Discuss each of the above difficulties, and attempt to formulate desirable practices to prevent failure."[1]

10. Cutting should be prevented the first few days when habits are being formed.[2]

11. Credit should be given for effort, coöperation, regularity of attendance, promptness, and courtesy as well as achievements.

a. Demands upon energy, persistence, and ambition strengthen character.

b. The glory of genuine success should be emphasized.

c. The students should be made to realize that the world has a place for every decent citizen.[3]

12. From time to time, letters

[1] Dvorkin, Etta W. "Group Guidance By Official Class Teachers." HIGH POINTS, Vol. XXI, No. 2, February, 1939, pp. 38-39.

[2] John Adams High School "Report of the Committee on Maladjusted Students."

[3] New York Association of Frst Assistants. "Report of the Committee on the Non-academically Minded." 1937.

might be sent to parents containing commendations, suggestions, requests for conferences, etc.

13. Visits to the home (visiting teachers) will help the school to understand the home environment. As Eugene C. Ciccarelli has pointed out, the mother's emotional instability is often the cause of maladjustment.[1] Living and financial conditions have their effect upon disturbing emotional equilibrium.

14. When report cards appear, the section officer and subject teacher can help the failures either personally or by appointing bright or Arista pupils to coach the less fortunate.

15. Pupils should be encouraged to go out for teams and to join clubs.

16. Every teacher should show "school spirit" by attending some games, dances, plays, and operettas. Happy student-teacher relationships, as well as real pleasure, are a positive result of such coöperation. "Neither guidance nor any other worthwhile educational process can go forward effffectively unless all teachers concern themselves with the real boy and the real girl."[2]

[1] Ciccarelli, Eugene C. "Educational Components in Clinical Child Guidance." *Understanding The Child*, Vol. VII, No. 4, January, 1939, pp. 12-15.

[2] Cox, Philip W. and Langfitt, R. Emerson. *High School Administration and Supervision*, American Book Company, New York, 1934, p. 427.

17. In addition, every teacher should ask himself, "Do I consider it to be of paramount importance to provide in my classroom at all times a wholesome and happy environment conducive to the realization and perpetuation of real life values?"[1] For, as Dr. Frank J. O'Brien says, "To see that children will be under the influence of individuals who not only know what and how to teach but are emotionally mature, who like children, and who create a happy, emotionally peaceful and secure classroom atmosphere, is education's main responsibility."[2]

18. At the first sign of incipient maladjustment, have a physical check-up. Perhaps, the pupil's load is excessive. Health Education Departments do good work in this phase of guidance. Speech difficulties also need immediate attention. Time is a most important element in speech correction.

19. Initial disciplinary cases should be handled through the head of department. The deans or principal should not have red (discipline) cards against new students.

20. At Girls' High School, "A course in Human Relations is given by the Dean for one period each week. The purpose of this course is

[1] Dunsmoor, Clarence C. "Guidance Checklist for Classroom Teachers." *The Clearing House*, Vol. 13, No. 7, March, 1939, pp. 428-30.

[2] O'Brien, Frank J. "The Bureau of Child Guidance, Board of Education, City of New York." *Understanding The Child*, Vol. VII, No. 4, January, 1939, pp. 3-7.

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to develop on a sound psychological basis, adjustment in home, social, business, and political relations. The work is very practical and gives the girls an opportunity to discuss informally and intimately problems of individual interest. The enthusiasm of the girls for these weekly conferences attests to its value."[1]

21. Pupils should be encouraged to attend church. The immense psychological, as well as spiritual, value of active church membership is the theme of Dr. Link's *The Return to Religion,* which every educator should read.

22. Utilize the community's facilities for social, educational, and recreational activities. The Police Athletic League, Boy Scouts of America, museums, are invaluable integrating agencies.

23. Encourage summer camping. According to Professor Elmer Mitchell of the University of Michigan, camps offer twenty-four hour guidance and a "follow through."[2]

24. Both Dr. Frank J. O'Brien and Dr. Henry C. Link caution us to watch the seclusive type of child who presents a more serious problem from the mental health standpoint than the disturbing aggressive pupil.

25. Refer serious cases of maladjustment to The Bureau of Child Guidance, Board of Education, City of New York.

RICHARD L. LOUGHLIN.
John Adams.

[1] Crow, Alice. "Guidance at Girls' High School." HIGH POINTS, Vol. XXI, No. 3, March, 1939, p. 46.

[2] Mitchell, Elmer. An article in the *Phi Delta Kappan.* Vol. XXI, December, 1938, p. 140-142.

THE NEW SYLLABUS IN FOREIGN CIVILIZATION
ITS ADAPTATION

The "Syllabus Of Minima In Modern Foreign Languages" states as the immediate aim of the teaching of modern foreign languages the development to the point of enjoyment of the ability to read the foreign language. Knowledge of the foreign country and its people is considered as the ultimate aim.

The problems and new trends faced by the classroom teacher of modern foreign languages and his efforts to meet them have resulted in the slow, but steady growth of emphasis on *realia,* informational, and cultural material. The teacher is confronted with the problem of the slow pupil and with the many unsuccessful attempts to meet this issue. He realizes also that after a short time even those who successfully complete the courses of study retain but little of their ability to read, which is the aim of language teaching today. Without adequate practice, the law of disuse must operate. He has heard of new movements in education; the new attitude that the emphasis in teaching should be on the processes and not on the end results, and the recent emphasis on training for intelligent citizenship in a democracy. It is not surprising, therefore, that the teacher of language looks with increasing interest and hope upon this growth in the use of civilization material. The last fifteen years have witnessed the growth and acceptance of the fact that in the study of languages more than just the ability to read must be given to the pupil. The teacher must attempt to develop in him life-long attitudes of understanding, appreciation, and good citizenship. This can be accomplished only through the increased study of the daily life, the environment, the history, the traditions, and the ideals of the foreign people whose language he is studying.

No better example of the effort to keep pace with this movement can be found than that made by the Division Of Modern Foreign Languages of the New York City Board of Education. It has recently issued the new "Syllabus In Foreign Civilization" to be used by the teachers of French. The new Syllabus takes the fullest cognizance of the new trend in modern language teaching. It contains a detailed plan for four years of work in the foreign civilization aimed at developing the attitudes and ideals mentioned above. It has carefully selected the minimum of the [illegible] material necessary for the guidance of the teacher and is prefixed by an excellent statement of the latest methods and procedures for use in the teaching of this material. The topics treated in this statement are as follows:—

1. The aim in teaching civilization.
2. The preparation and attitude of the teacher.
3. Stress on the unique.
4. Pupil activity as a basic principle.
5. Desirable outcomes of this instruction.
6. Correlation with other departments.
7. Visual and aural instruction.
8. Testing.
9. When civilization may be taught.
10. The classification of topics.

The Syllabus demonstrates its practicality and its awareness of the problems involved in the teaching of civilization when in the final paragraph of the prefixed statement it notes: "Each modern language department should plan an orderly and progressive presentation of the topics selected."

In order to carry out the suggestion offered above, a committee of teachers of the Seward Park

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decided to adapt the new Syllabus to the conditions and needs as they existed in their school.

The committee found itself confronted with the following problems:—

1. The wealth of material in the Syllabus.
2. The necessity for making the adapted syllabus conform to school examination procedure.
3. The lack of repetition.
4. The Junior High School entrant as compared with the 8B-school entrant.
5. The two-year courses.
6. Methods of presentation.

It was noted that the syllabus in the teaching of the language itself, and the standards superimposed by the State Board of Regents, crowded the teacher's calendar so much, that very little time was available for the presentation of the material on civilization. Nevertheless, the committee felt that the syllabus in civilization could not be neglected and should be taught even at the expense of the loss of some of its material, especially that which it considered of secondary importance. For example, since there is no fourth year of French at Seward Park High School, some of the material for that year could be safely dropped, where as other parts, considered important, were incorporated into the work of the lower grades. The work to be done on the history of the foreign country was successfully pruned to include only the outstanding men and periods. The detailed study of such things as cathedrals and churches, public buildings, and educational systems was avoided, but in no sense were these subjects neglected. Important trends and facts on these subjects were kept. Minimum essentials concerning Geography, General Impressions, Family Life, School Life, Country Life, Act, Science, Literature, Music, were emphasized.

In order to maintain adequate standards it was necessary to arrange the material in such a manner as to make it possible to test its absorption. Testing, not only by the individual teacher, but by the department as a whole was necessary. Such testing would insure uniformity and conformity. The various topics treated in the syllabus were therefore divided by grade and then further subdivided into two groups for each grade, one group to be taught before the mid-term examination and the other to be completed by the end of the term.

In rearranging the order of topics and in regrading them for each term of the subject, it was found necessary to place the bulk of the work in the first four terms, with special emphasis on terms three and four. The following consideration prompted the decision. Many of the pupils at Seward Park High School complete only the two year course. It was, therefore, necessary to put as much work on civilization as possible into the first two years, leaving only the finishing touches for the third year. Furthermore, some of the pupils, coming from the Junior High Schools, would be exposed to our course for only one year, (the third and fourth terms.) The others, coming from 8B schools or taking French as a second language, start with us in the first term, thus receiving four full terms of work. To adjust this difference, as much material as possible was concentrated into the third and fourth terms. This meant quite a bit of repetition of certain material. The committee felt, however, that repetition, even for its own sake, was worth while, and based on sound principles of learning. Thus our syllabus contains many items such as *Geography, Paris, Family Life, School Life,* which are studied in the first and second terms and then reviewed and supplemented in the third and fourth terms. The committee was heartily in accord with the suggestions contained in the "parent syllabus" as to methods and procedures in the teaching of civilization. The "Syllabus" calls for the proper preparation and attitude of the teacher, stress on the unique, pupil activity, projects, and clubs. It advocates visits to ships, museums, libraries, stores, churches, and foreign quarters. Aural instruction is not neglected; the extensive use of the phonograph and radio is favored. Lastly, the "Syllabus" states its belief that adequate and beneficial correlation of the civilization program with other school departments can be obtained. There is no doubt as to the wisdom of these suggestions and it was quite natural that the committee should accept them *in toto.*

It was on the question of the introduction of this work to the class that the committee spent most of its time. It felt that some aid should be given the teacher in introducing and presenting his material in an interesting, natural, and orderly manner. The aim was to avoid the unexpected, unmotivated, lecture on French civilization. The committee thought that the text books used by the students should be of such a nature as to teach civilization while at the same time teaching the language. But such ideal books are difficult to find because most texts used in the high school today are used because of their language rather than their cultural values. Nevertheless, the committee decided that since the best way of introducing the subject was indirectly, through some statement found in the texts perhaps, and since the texts might contain valuable supplementary material, a careful survey should be made. This was done, and from every part of every book used in the various terms of the subject a list was drawn up, showing by means

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reference which could be used for initiating, motivating, and supplementing the material in the syllabus on civilization. In this manner, the teacher would be able to plan ahead for the various topics as they occurred in the text books. This list was added to the outline of subjects for each term under the title, "Related Material In Texts Used In Class." A sample page of the adapted syllabus will clarify what the committee accomplished. The following is the cover page for the syllabus in French II.

FRENCH II

TO MID-TERM

I. *Family Life*—Domestic conditions, Clothing, Food, Amusements, National traits.
II. *Country Life*—Customs, Dress, Food, Drink, and so forth.
III. *Paris*—History, Size, Beauty, Famous Building.

TO END OF TERM

IV. *Transportation and Communication* — Railroads, Canals, Roads, and so forth.
V. *Story of Napoleon.*
VI. *Geography*—Review Syllabus For French I; Add Chief Cities And Their Importance.
VII. *French Schools*—Outline Of Educational System.

RELATED MATERIAL IN TEXTS USED IN CLASS

For Items	*Topic*	*Lesson*	*Page*
I and II	Lectures Elémentaires—Story	—	3
	Greenberg Grammar	—	—
	Reading Exercise—Paris	19	62
III	Greenberg Grammar	25	83
III	Conversation—Greenberg Grammar	26	88
IV	"Le Controleur Emporté"	—	—
	Lectures Elémentaires	—	38
V	"Une Bonne Réponse"	—	—
	Lectures Elémentaires	—	24
VI	La France-Greenberg Grammar	27	90
VI	Paris—Greenberg Grammar	29	99
VI	Les Grands Ports Français	—	—
	Greenberg Grammar	36	124
VII	L'école d'autrefois	—	—
	et		
	L'école d'aujourd'hui	—	—
	Greenberg Grammar	35	120

It is hoped that the experiences of the committee at Seward Park High School and its solutions to the many problems encountered in their adaptation of the "Syllabus In Foreign Civilization" may be of value to those of its colleagues who are attempting or will attempt to make a similar adaptation.

Further information on the work of the committee ar. l sample copies of the adapted syllabus may be obtained by addressing:—

Mr. Victor Chankin
Department of French
Seward Park High School
New York City

BERNARD MININSON.
Seward Park High School.

*"REVITALIZING THE HIGH SCHOOL ASSEMBLY"

Not a teacher myself, I talk with such a group as this one only with both reluctance and hesitation. The situation is somewhat similar to that of an insurance man who, when a friend said to him, "Business must be good. I see you have a new car." replied, "I made the mistake of my life in trying to write life insurance for an automobile salesman. He won." Likewise, I very strongly suspect that some of you may be a bit more expert in the things I am going to talk to about than I am. On the face of it, the idea that I can talk to a group like this and tell you things worth knowing that you don't already know is well-nigh ridiculous. This is almost as bad as when one of you appears before a parents group to tell the mothers and fathers how to raise children. I suppose the thing you gain from such a meeting as this is a new slant on your problems, from someone who works in an atmosphere different from the one you are accustomed to. That new slant I shall attempt to develop.

The topic given to me had something to do with the high school assembly and democracy. This is curious, because in many respects the assembly is the most autocratic feature of high school life. Schools where classes are a model of personal attention and where every effort is made to get the children to think, to speak out, run their assemblies after a military pattern. The pupils are lined up. At the command of the teacher they march. They go in a certain door of the auditorium and take their assigned seats. They sit still; if anyone of them should whisper, the teacher hushes him up. They listen to something handed down to them in the best authoritarian manner. When that something is finished

*Address delivered on Saturday, March 25, 1939, before a Meeting of the Association of Teachers of History in the City of New York.

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the bell rings and the students get up and in lines march back to their classroom. The school returns to its normal routine. So much for assembly procedures. Content is frequently on the same level. We have the announcements, we have the various organizational advertisements, and we have the speakers.

This picture is, of course, badly overdrawn, and I am quite conscious of the fact that in the last fifteen or twenty years the assembly pattern, particularly from the standpoint of content, has been improved tremendously. I also realize that certain of the restrictive procedures are a necessary part of bringing together a large body of young people. At the same time, a great many of you are dissatisfied with the assemblies in your school. You have thought of abolishing them, and for one reason or another have decided against that. The question is, what can we do to improve the assemblies? What can we do to make the assembly experience a real contribution to the life of the student?

Very briefly, I should just like to mention two possibilities which are worthy of much more extended study. The first has to do with student participation in planning for the assemblies. This does not mean letting the President of the Junior Class select the psalm to be read. The well-nigh tragic consequences of this sort of thing were illustrated in "What A Life." Rather does it means giving students responsibility with guidance, so that they work out assembly programs that really meet their needs. Many schools have been quite successful in doing this.

Any remarks on assemblies would be incomplete without at least a reference to the fine materials on race relations which have been worked out by Mrs. Mandelbaum and her associates at Bay Ridge High School. I take it, however, that you are already familiar with these things, and in any case, you have easy access to them.

But what I have been asked to do this morning is to tell you about one way of using the assembly as an opportunity for free and open discussion of the public problems of America. The idea is not new, but the town meeting technique which is now being perfected has not been used very extensively as yet. That technique I propose to describe to you. Of course, all of us realize that no single idea can be used in every assembly program. There are so many other things that have to be done at assemblies. However, depending on the needs of the schools the town meeting idea can be used once or twice or five times in the course of the year.

Interest in this suggestion stems from the new concern for the future of democracy that all of us feel. We realize that we are sending our students forth into a world where the part that they play as citizens may well be decisive. We want to train them in the issues that they as citizens must face. Dr. John W. Studebaker stated this very forcibly on a recent Town Hall broadcast dealing with the question "Are the Schools Doing Their Job?" He said "We must give youth real experiences in grappling with controversial issues and with significant modern problems, and we must do this during several years before the pupils leave the secondary schools. A citizen in a democratic society must know how to think and talk about issues concerning which there is an honest (or even a dishonest) difference of opinion. Young people must learn how to do this in the schools. This ability possessed in common by the people is essential to the democratic way of life. Therefore, the development of this ability is a primary obligation of public schools."

Not only must we impart knowledge of controversial issues; we must also train in democratic procedures if we are to produce really good citizens. One procedure of democracy is open public discussion.

Can we do these two things in the high school assembly? Is not the assembly an ideal opportunity for both of them? Here we can develop an interest in controversial issues, we can develop an ability to discuss them, as well as some confidence in the discussion method as a means of bringing people together. Can we do this? The answer is [illegible]

Clyde Miller has pointed out that there are three things that you can do with propaganda you don't like. You can suppress it, you can set up counter-propaganda, or you can attempt to analyze it. Now America is a democracy, and we can't suppress propaganda. Perhaps some of you think you can in the schools, but even if you could, you shouldn't. You can set up pure counter-propaganda, but frequently this serves merely to widen the cleavages that already exist. I think the first speaker gave an illustration of this when he mentioned the fact that a German student not, strongly pro-Nazi, was driven that way by a poster competition that was to compare Nazism and democracy. The third possibility is analysis, and I am all in favor of analysis, but analysis by itself is not enough. What we have got to do is let the propagandas compete with one another in free and open fashion on the same platform. Nationally, we can't kill Coughlinism by putting Father Coughlin off the air. Even if we could, the same standards that we used to rid us of Coughlin would one day be used to rid us of social dissenters of other views, and we should find that in trying to preserve our democracy we had killed it. We should give Father Coughin free time on the air, but put on with him an equally capable people who disagree with him. The juxta position of the two points of view will

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serve to set the listeners thinking and no longer will they be easily made into blind followers. Turning from the national situation to the New York City schools, I understand that some of you are bothered by Nazi activities among your students. Why not bring the Nazi leader right into the school assembly? Give him time to state his case, but give an equal amount of time to an equally capable person, a believer in the democratic way of life. These issues exist. Let's bring them into the assembly and give them a thorough discussion.

Of course, we are all aware of the difficulties involved in an open discussion of controversial issues in the high schools. There are pressure groups who will protest. There are outstanding citizens who will object, and frequently a general turmoil results from an honest effort to train students for citizenship. I assure you that I would not have talked so long about this problem if I did not think that the town meeting procedure is a solution. By using it you can discuss controversial issues in a manner that is above criticism.

Specifically, what are my suggestions? That assembly periods be constituted as town meetings. That two or three or four persons of different points of view be given equal amounts of time to talk to your students. That following their brief addresses they all submit, through a moderator, to questions from the student themselves.

Let's go into detail? What shall the topics be? Preferably, public questions about which your students already know enough to be interested in themselves. Since it takes some time really to learn the town meeting procedure, it might be wise for you to hold one or two assemblies on simple school problems by way of preparation. We have found it best always to word the topic in the form of a question. Too much care cannot be given to getting a fair and interesting wording.

Who are the speakers to be? They can be students or teachers or outsiders. Probably it would be best to match them in so far as is possible so that you can never be accused of over-weighting a meeting by getting a weak speaker for one side. Have three teachers or three students or three outsiders. The speakers should talk with conviction. Every effort should be made to get away from the artificiality that sometimes characterizes high school debating. This is not a debate and no one is going to win. Our purpose is to bring to a group of receptive student minds different points of view on a public problem and then to amplify and explain further every point of view. Our purpose is to get different ideas started—not to win a debate.

So much for the speakers. Another essential piece of furniture for such a town meeting is a chairman. Since we are probably liberal educators, we think at once "Let's have a st[illegible]irman!" But let

me give you a word of caution. For a good town meeting the chairman has got to be good. His is the important decision, and he can make or ruin the discussion. His task is not only to introduce the speakers. More important he presides in the question period that follows the addresses. It is up to him to prevent members of the audience from making speeches of their own. He may well have to rule certain questions entirely out of order, either because they are off the subject or because they are purely personal. His authority depends largely on audience support, and to keep authority he must keep this support by being eminently fair. In addition to these duties, he has the chance to make the meeting both dramatic and interesting by the fashion in which he handles the situations, by occasionally showing a dramatic flair. This is no easy job and not every person can do it. Possibly there are some students in your school who can be trained for it. Perhaps there are not. If not, don't use a student. On the other hand, don't assume that just any teacher is equal to the job. Perhaps neither you nor anyone else on the faculty of your school can do it. Perhaps you will have to go outside the school altogether and find some prominent member of your community in whom all have confidence. In fact, you might find this a good idea in any case. In securing someone outside of the whirl of school life, someone not connected with its quarrels and problems, you are more likely to get a perfectly fair chairman. Also, by the proper choice of an outside chairman, you may be able to take away the sting of any attack that pressure groups may bring upon you. Do not accept a poor chairman in order to do this. But it is quite possible that some outstanding religious or lay figure in the community around your school is a capable chairman who would be willing to cooperate with you in this effort.

Now what about the audience? The spirit in which the students cooperate with this venture will determine its success or failure to a greater extent than any other single factor. So that they can get into the spirit of the Town Meeting, they must understand what is being done and what the accomplishments may be. The problem of educating your audience is one that would be a bit greater for you than it is for us at Town Hall. While our audience shifts, there usually is a group of people present who are familiar with the broadcast and its purposes. However, when we went out to the Convention of the American Association of School Administrators for our broadcast of March 2nd, we had an audience that, as far as we knew, was not familiar with our procedures. For their benefit we prepared and distributed a special mimeographed sheet. The contents of this sheet are summarized

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in two paragraphs, which I shall take the liberty of reading you.

"A spirit of fair play should permeate every meeting. Speakers and audience alike will readily see, on consideration, that any unfair statement, discourtesy or demonstration will react more unfavorably toward the side guilty of such an infraction than to the side against which it is aimed. Blows below the belt are clearly visible to every listener. Town Meetings are not mass meetings, and it is perfectly clear on the basis of our past experience, that the radio audience is highly sensitive and suspicious of any attempt on the part of the visible audience to convince listeners by undue applause, boos, hisses or catcalls.

"As Dr. and Mrs. Overstreet so well put it in their book, TOWN MEETING COMES TO TOWN, 'this strife of opinions . . . has nothing in it of the brute fight to overmaster and destroy. Such fighting having force as its criterion is the way of barbarism. For in it the loser only loses. The fight of ideas, on the other hand, is the way of civilization, and in this fight, he who loses, loses to truth and thereby wins. This kind of fighting is good for everybody . . . '"

I think you should be able to develop such a spirit as this among your students.

So much by way of general description of the meeting. The operating rules are few, but should be thoroughly understood in advance by all. Give your speakers equal time. Plan to allow at least as much time for the question period as the time of all the speakers put together. Keep your speakers within their time. If possible, keep questions down to twenty-five words. Keep the speaker's answers down to two minutes; and use a watch. Have the chairman rule out of order any questions that are not on the subject.

Quite possibly some of you are wondering why a question period is suggested rather than an opportunity for talks from the floor. I don't believe you can have them in the short time that is yours. If you have chosen your speakers carefully to represent the various points of view that may be taken, you don't need further speeches. What is needed is an opportunity to bring out disagreements or inconsistencies, and the questions do that in a very fine fashion.

These are in large part the rules under which "A.T.M.A." has operated so successfully for four years. They can work for you.

In one respect perhaps you can improve upon "America's Town Meeting of the Air." Experience has indicated that a fair and frank summarization of the discussion given at the very end by some expert in whom all have confidence enhances its educational value. We could not put such a summarization on the air, but if you have someone whose ability lies along that line you could close your own

Town Meeting with such a critique. Please remember that the critique is to be directed to the content of the discussion and not to the manner of delivery, for this is a town meeting and not an exercise in oratory.

We realize, of course, that such public discussions operate largely in one area of education, that of stimulation. To extend their educational service into other areas you can encourage advance preparation on the part of the students and arrange for various follow-ups of the discussion that takes place. The issue of the school paper that comes out several days in advance of the assembly might not only mention the topic and the speakers but might also include a brief statement, drafted by the editor, on the background and issues involved. This statement should be non-partisan. On the other hand, two frankly partisan statements, made from different points of view, might be run. Student clubs and even classrooms might discuss the question in town meeting fashion prior to the assembly. In such meetings as these would come the opportunity to break in your own student chairman.

Whether you want it or not you will frequently find that the discussion initiated in the assembly will continue during the various classroom sessions that follow the assembly. This in itself is one of the best indications of the way in which the meeting has captured the imaginations and the minds of the students. This follow-up discussion by some of your groups should be encouraged if it is at all possible.

Already referred to above has been the advisability of choosing fields where students are familiar with some of the more important facts. Mr. Benjamin Rosenthal of the High School of Music and Art tells me that he had a very successful assembly this past month, choosing a topic that had been discussed on "America's Town Meeting of the Air" about three weeks earlier. The question had to do with freedom of the press, and the show which Mr. Gannett and Secretary Ickes put on for us had aroused considerable public discussion. Quite a substantial amount of the student body had listened to the broadcast, and others had read some of the comments. Consequently, they knew enough to discus the question not only intelligently but with real enthusiasm. So successful is this experiment that I suggest that you consider carefully the possibility of using Town Hall topics a week or two after they have been discussed on "America's Town Meeting of the Air." As you may already have heard, Town Hall this past year set up an Advisory Service to coöperate closely with all high school groups that were using the broadcast. The materials of this Advisory Service are open to you, and we should be more than happy to coöperate with

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any such efforts as the one that has just been described.

It is very likely that transcriptions of our broadcasts will be available for use by educational institutions next Fall. Consequently, those of you who would like to avail yourself of our speakers will be able to do so, literally. We will be happy to coöperate with you, but we want to go on encouraging formal and informal listening by high school students to the broadcast itself, and the use of our broadcast as the basis for high school discussion. Probably the school development is the most significant one that has occurred in connection with "America's Town Meeting of the Air." We are indeed proud of it and pledge to each one of you our coöperation in extending it.

ARTHUR NORWOOD, JR.

RECORDING IN GUIDANCE

A study of recording in vocational guidance evokes several questions that need to be answered. Broadly speaking, the questions suggested are as follows:

1. What are the purposes of recording?
2. How may one determine what material in each interview is necessary for the record and what are the principles for effective recording?

One cannot disregard the human element as it relates to this study. Good recording depends on all the five senses developed to their fullest. This necessitates a training and experience of the counselor that equip him to report facts, to interpret and treat, and to evaluate the total case picture at necessary intervals. Lurie, in his introductory remarks on "A Study of the Methods of Analyzing and Recording Social Case Work Interviews" discusses the problem of accuracy in keeping the record. He recognizes the implication of the human element in recording when he pointedly comments—

> One forms a judgment upon these psychological situations (in the interview) through a synthesis of the perceptions which occur to the observer. Such judgments are at best inferences subject to error and to misunderstanding, or to improper perspective. These are fallible, as are all human "judgments", theories and hypotheses. Accuracy and improvement in such perceptions are of course attained through experience, through conscious processes of discernment, through analysis and study of the validity of such judgments.

An end product of counselor experience would be manifested in the ability to discern relationships between a request for guidance and the causes prompting the request. A student asking for a change of course may be saying subconsciously, "I must get a job soon"; or "I must help support the family"; or "I want some pocket money so I can go out with the boys." Yet, originally, all he wished was typing and bookkeeping instead of Algebra and French. To sense and record the existing relationship between the two, no matter how subtle it may be, serves to narrow the gap between the interview and the guidance process which follows.

It is this type of thinking which perhaps gives rise to the diagnostic thinking of which Miss Hamilton speaks.

> All diagnostic effort or treatment evaluation is extraordinarily complicated, tentative and flexible, and is understood as such by the well-trained reader or writer of records. The difficulty is not in recording clearly but in learning to think clearly, and no record can be said to be professional until our fragmentary and imperfect diagnostic thinking is included.

In summing up may we say that the diagnostic habit is more important than any form it may take.[1]

In recording, the counselor should be able to distinguish fact from judgment. There is a danger of invalidating a record where an opinion not based on facts is noted. An experienced counselor will recognize the shallowness of the information in the following generalized opinions unsupported by specific supporting data. "Girl should lose weight." "Student is good material for a trade school." "Boy has earmarks of delinquency." Expressed as generalizations, they tend to distort the record and make it valueless for treatment unless based on authentic evidence. For instance, the fact that a boy's clothes are dirty and he cuts classes is no inevitable evidence of impending delinquency; and to record that he has the earmarks of a delinquent may be libelous and is unworthy of any counselor who is working toward the ideal of scientific guidance.

An alert worker will be aware of the danger that exists in a narrow comprehension of the request and the tendency to generalize. Specific, factual recording and interpretation lead to greater usefulness of the record. This will follow when a practical technique of recording is developed.

The task of gathering data is justified by the use to which the data are put. In a practical sense,

[1] Hamilton, G. *Social Case Recording*, Columbia Press, 1936.

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the major purpose of recording becomes guidance or in a broad sense treatment. Essentially, the student comes for help, and counselor activity on a problem must relate to treatment, no matter how slight, or suffer the criticism of time wasted and ineffective work done. There are, however, by-products of recording.

From the standpoint of the student, the case record is the medium from which the counselor develops an objective and realistic picture of the student's problem. The result should be an accurate design that points and leads to complete understanding for counseling.

The counselor views recording on a broader basis. He sees it not only as an integral part of treatment, but as an aid in developing a critical attitude toward the interviewing technique. The record gives him a basis on which to analyze and to evaluate the work he has done.

The supervisor in guidance views recording as a means of eventually modifying curriculum and revising educational philosophy, for inherent in the recorded material are data on which to base research and to help solve problems in education. For example, a study of why students drop out of high school, or why students change from one course to another might result from an examination of thousands of case records yielding informative and revealing data. Curriculum modification might well be indicated by records clearly showing students needs. Only factual data can aid in curriculum adjustment and design.

Like Chinese boxes the various aims of recording on the different levels fit one into another. They are interrelated. A well-informed counselor is thoroughly familiar with the many objectives and implications of the recording process, if he is to develop the practise of clear and useful recording. These objectives are perhaps best summed up for our purpose as follows:[2]

1. *Continuity of Service to Individual Students.*

   Inevitable changes of counselor personnel as well as absence make it necessary from time to time to substitute one counselor for another. The advantages of adequate records in such cases, so that the thread may be readily picked up by the succeeding counselor, are obvious.

2. *Economy of Time and Effort in Planning and Conducting Interviews.*

   Memory cannot be depended upon to furnish essential details, especially in view of the large numbers of students under counsel. It is wasteful to go over ground already covered in previous interviews.

3. *Substantiation and Review of Facts Upon Which Important Decisions Rest.*

   Where new problems and decisions arise in a student's case, it is of great value to be able to review past history which will throw light upon the student's interests and inclinations and make it possible to view his new problem in perspective. The record has also been found to be invaluable in allocating responsibility in controversial matters.

4. *Training Value for Counselors.* Because the personal interview is the chief "tool" of the department and because proficiency in interviewing can be learned,[3] it is important that counselors develop a critical attitude toward the interviewing techniques they employ. The recording of interviews, which includes the interpretation of facts as well as the facts themselves, provides an opportunity for critical review in order to note strong and weak points and to plan to improve.

5. *Factual Basis for Analysis of Conditions at Any Time That Research May Be Attempted.*

   A great deal of recorded material that is not immediately usable in a case may serve far-reaching ends as part of a study of many similar cases.

Probably, one of the most difficult tasks that confront the counselor is to determine what data revealed in the interview should go into the record. He listens attentively for minutes at a time, injects himself into the discussion at the psychological moment and leads the interview into areas that are productive for counseling. Much of what is said may fall under two arbitrary groupings called "record data" and "non-record data".

The record data include material that emerges from existing records. A discussion that relates to a student's scholarship record, health record, test reports, agency reports, a questionnaire, is tangible and can be evaluated readily for recording purposes. For example, a health record shows myopic acuity of vision. Location of the seat in the classroom and date when glasses were changed last, when discussed, yield practical material for the record that is significant. With such facts in the record, subsequent interviews will simplify follow-up of the visual defect. Such information is also useful when discussing

[2] Becker, Elsa G., *Guidance at Work in a Large City High School*, High School Division, Board of Education, N. Y. C., 1935.

[3] Bingham, Walter Van Dyke, and Moore, Bruce Victor, *How to Interview*, Harper and Brothers, N. Y., N. Y., 1931, passim.

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vocational plans with the student since defective vission necessarily limits vocational choice.

"Non-record data" is more general and elusive. While it may develop from a discussion related to an existing record, it may also lead into the realm of the subtle, intangible data that reveal what are known as attitudes, a philosophy of life, reactions to things, persons and circumstances, fears, personal standards, and convictions. It is bound to be fragmentary and more or less subjective. Yet significant portions of these data must be noted to assure retention and prevent loss of key information.

The almost ghostlike characteristic of the "non-record" data calls forth the keenest form of observation and sensitivity on the part of the counselor. His sensory sieve must consist of fine netting to catch the significant (for counseling) content of the interview. Allowing pointed statements and useful information made by the student in the interview to sift through unnoticed can affect the development of the case study. Diagnosis is skimpy where this happens.

A father was telling of a home situation which was comfortable, secure, and attentive to the need of the children. He eulogized the efforts of his wife who was an "ideal mother". She made "every sacrifice" for the boy in question. Self-denial, persistent attention, and complete understanding characterized her relationship with the boy in the father's estimation. Casually, he revealed her childhood which he compared with that of his boy. Sonny "had everything" as a youngster. His wife had been parentless since she was nine. She had occasionally bemoaned her parentless childhood. Was this a clue to key information? The counselor, to be sure, had reason to believe that the mother had overreached in bringing up her boy. Unconsciously she was determined to impose on the child that which she had missed while growing up —affection that actually compelled complete surrender of the boy's individuality. The mother's adjustment mechanisms of projection and compensation were undoubtedly related to this student's present truant behavior. The record here would include the father's story and its interpretation. It can lead to an accurate diagnosis in revealing causes of the difficulty and thus make effective treatment more certain. If it has such values, it is significant, and therefore, belongs in the record.

As soon as the interview begins, effort must be made to lead it into motivated discussion that brings out data necessary for counseling. Experience has shown that there are usable constants in the interview conversation which produce significant material. These constants are expressed below in the form of a general outline that has been found helpful, although never slavishly adhered to. As an outline it represents the scaffold from which the content of the case record is constructed.

1. Comprehending immediate complaint and problem.
2. Short, vivid description of features, traits, reactions, attitudes of the student.
3. Influences in the school environment bearing on the problem.
4. Influences on the outside of school other than the home (neighborhood environment, friends, "hangouts", activities, etc.)
5. Home conditions bearing on the problem (economic and social status, sibling-parent relationships, standards, etc.)
6. Steps taken to alleviate immediate tension produced by problem.
7. General interpretation of the problem with tentative plans for following steps in the process of treatment.

Counseling in most cases may begin immediately and will move at a pace made possible by the responses of the student and the quality and quantity of the significant data recorded. How much information will be forthcoming from one interview is an individual and unpredictable matter. Counselor experience, the nature of the problem, the promptness with which rapport is established and other factors will regulate the getting of useful information.

It has been shown by the incident of the neglected childhood of a boy's mother that statements and facts which present psychological implications bearing on the problem may be useful for treatment. Causes, which in and of themselves often are effects, can be uncovered where careful interviewing follows the protruding, symptomatic thread back to its possible origin. The over-solicitous and over-protective behavior of the parent in the case cited represented the symptomatic thread which served as a clue to the probable causes of the boy's aggressiveness which was expressed in the form of truancy. The ability to see implications, and to uncover key information are skills to be developed by every guidance counselor if effective counseling is to follow.

Psychologically speaking, the counselor reacts to what he hears from the student during the interview. The reaction should prompt the asking of pointed questions. It should also stimulate guidance concepts composed of associations, related knowledges and data which suggest possible avenues of ap-

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proach in handling the problem.

The two charts with which this article concludes visualize the various possible concepts and associations relative to a problem. Each shows the general and specific causal factors of the problem with which it deals.

Failure in school, indicated on Chart I, suggests a problem in the home, a problem in family relationship, a problem of health and several other difficulties. Overlapping is obvious and to be expected. Counseling takes place on several fronts simultaneously, covering cooperation of the home, provisions for relief, and educational and vocational guidance. Significant facts are listed under column III. They are significant because they lead directly or indirectly to treatment. For example, "excessive moving" is a useful fact for record because it produces more fundamental thinking concerning the causes of difficulty. Column IV contains suggestions for treatment that follow upon the record. What the charts aim to show is the possible relationship between data obtained, whether of record or non-record type, and treatment possibilities. May it not be wise to assume that as a minimum record all data should be recorded that are or may be indicative of treatment? The present brief discussion suggests three working principles for keeping guidance records.

1. Only those facts and statements should be assembled that help the counselor to understand the student and the situation in which he is involved.

2. Any and all facts should be recorded which enable a counselor to interpret and diagnose a problem.

3. Interview data to go on record should consist of material that makes possible efficient work with a student.

CHART I

PROBLEM (In Terms of Symptoms)
SERIOUS SCHOOL FAILURE

I General Causal Factors	II Possible Specific Causal Factors	III Facts That Reveal and Interpret Causes, Lead to Treatment and Therefore Are Significant for Record	IV Treatment Measures Suggested from Data Recorded
Family Relationships and Home Factors	Death of parent Economic insecurity	Parent unemployed, home relief, limited food and clothing, family of five in three rooms	Recommend NYA and school relief
	Parent-child conflict Lack of parental supervision Sibling rivalry	Mother "doesn't look at report card"	Develop interest of parent
Environmental and Social Factors	Bad associations	Few constructive social experiences; Family moving continually	Interpret, if receptive, the desirability of social experience
	Poor living habits	Fatigue due to lack of sleep	Motivate toward making schedule; get parent cooperation in developing living habits.
	Slum-impoverished neighborhood Overwork	Compelled to work at selling newspapers in bad neighborhood	Leave work as soon as NYA aid is granted

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CHART I—(Continued)

I General Causal Factors	II Possible Specific Causal Factors	III Facts That Reveal and Interpret Causes, Lead to Treatment and Therefore Are Significant for Record	IV Treatment Measures Suggested from Data Recorded
Environmental and Social Factors	School misfit	Daydreams in class	Modify school program in accordance with facts about his abilities and interests
	Teacher conflict	Misconduct in class	Uncover vocational interests, plan school work accordingly
	Limited recreational opportunities	Student never invites anyone to dilapidated home—ashamed of it	Arrange participation in extracurricular activity. Give attitude therapy
Mental and Physical Factors	Anaemic-Cretinism, obesity, etc.	Malnutrition	Refer to Health Education Department for their advice
	Physical handicap		
	Limited native intelligence	Poor student in lower grades. Repeated two terms	Plan program in accordance with ability
	Neuroses	Dislikes books, dislikes school, negativistic attitude	Encourage insight into bases for antipathies, and better habit formation

CHART II
DESIRE TO MAKE AN EDUCATIONAL AND VOCATIONAL PLAN
PROBLEM (In Terms of Symptoms)

I General Causal Factors	II Possible Specific Causal Factors	III Facts That Reveal and Interpret Causes, Lead to Treatment and Therefore Are Significant for Record	IV Treatment Measures Suggested from Data Recorded
Family Relationships and Home Factors	Economic status	Family income reduced	Part-time work selected for tryout value as well as money return
	Broken home	Death of wage-earning brother	Examination of selected vocational fields in light of his own interests, abilities, and needs. Get acquainted with family to discuss boy's right to development along lines best for him, though not traditional with family
	Pressure of family	Older siblings well adjusted to work through early planning	
	Family standards	Higher education a waste of time and money	
Environmental and Social Factors	School success or failure	Outstanding student in Journalism	Recommend for school paper; arrange contacts in journalism field outside school
	Group standards	Friends planning to go to college	Consider the advantages and disadvantages of going to college
	Interest in opposite sex	Finds inspiration in girl-friends of high standards of culture	Discuss desirability of postponing marriage in order to obtain higher education
Mental and Physical Factors	Intelligence level	Binet I.Q. 130 Vocabulary tests higher than 90%	Consider those vocations that draw upon his scholastic aptitude
	Physical handicaps	Cardiac defects—slight	Eliminate those vocational and educational plans that will aggravate physical condition
	Emotional stability	Average, has "drive"	Provide challenges to his intelligence and high ideals

Samuel J. Tilden High School.

MURRAY SACHS.

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SCIENCE IN A DEMOCRACY*

STAGE DIRECTIONS

Stage and auditorium are darkened.

A spotlight shines on the MAN OF SCIENCE *only* while he is talking.

(1) Each of the other characters takes a place behind a neon light as the Man of Science announces him. The neon light is illuminated *only* while the character talks and while the spotlight on the Man of Science is turned off. (This is accomplished by a double switch operated from behind the curtain.) The neon light illuminates *only* the face of the character. (Two one-liter round bottom flasks half filled with water are mounted on ring stands and placed in such a way that the neon light is reflected from the flasks and help to illuminate the faces of the various scientists called up by the man of science.)

The Man of Science stands at the extreme *right* of the stage in front of the curtain. The other scientists come out from behind the curtain at the extreme *left* of the stage and take their positions behind the neon light fixed on a table near the extreme left of the stage.

Loud speakers help.

(2) *For more Action:*

The scientists may be shown working in their laboratories—Carver before a large distillation apparatus, Noguchi at the eye-piece of a microscope, Goldberger with testtube, flask, Bunsen burner and charts, Steinmetz at some spark-producing device such as Jacobs ladder, Hale at the eyepiece of a telescope and star charts, and Dr. Slye handling some mice in front of her cages of these animals. Visitors engage these scientists in conversation, and the script may be changed to fit the situation.

MAN OF SCIENCE

I represent a scientist. My life is devoted to probing the secrets of nature. I want to know more about the millions of stars that spangle the heavens, and the part that we play in this gigantic universe. The flight of a sparrow, and the shimmering spectrum in a pool of water also call for answers. I want to know more about the nature of matter and of energy. I want more light.

But I am more than the natural philosopher groping after abstract truth. I am also a citizen, like you. I want, through science, to wipe out poverty, abolish slums, banish disease, eliminate war, prevent unemployment. I want to apply the scientific method to the solution of social problems. I want to offer the fruits of scientific discovery to all men, for I want to lift man to his greatest powers. And I want to strengthen man's loyalty to truth.

I live in democracy. What does that mean? It means that I live in a land "whose form of government and society is inspired above everything else with faith in the dignity of man." Democracy is firmly rooted in such beliefs as freedom of thought, of expression, and of religion, regardless of race, creed or place of birth.

Why does science believe in this form of government? Because democracy is its lifeblood, the air it breathes, and the spirit which sustains it. Freedom of thought and of expression are of the essence of both science and democracy. Science thrives best where, as in our democracy, each man is given the opportunity to develop his own abilities. Science is the first bulwark against bigotry, superstition, and false propaganda. Democracy is the first line of defense against the stifling of true research for the benefit of all humankind. Whenever the life of democracy is at stake, science is in mortal danger.

Here in the United States men of all races have contributed to the advance of science. Science and democracy know no color line. White, black, and yellow men have changed the face of America through science. Witness the life of George Washington Carver . . .

THE VOICE OF CARVER

Mine is the voice of a slave child who began life seventy odd years ago in a rude cabin in Missouri. When still an infant I was bought by a farmer for a broken-down race horse. I struggled against a sickly body and extreme poverty for an education. After graduating from Iowa State College, I was called by Booker T. Washington to teach chemistry at Tuskegee Institute in Alabama. I saw an opportunity here to help the South out of its most serious agricultural difficulty. Cotton had been king too long. The king was now dead; so I taught the South how to raise the peanut instead of cotton. Soon they were growing more peanuts than they could use. I went back to my laboratory. There must be other ways of disposing of the huge peanut crop. Out of my test-tubes and flasks, after years of chemical research, came three hundred useful products of the peanut—oils, dyes, flour, soap, linoleum, and even paper. From the muck of swamps, I also isolated and made available life-giving fertilizers. I took out no patents. I was interested only in helping the impoverished farmers, both black and white. My efforts were appreciated. The citizens of

*Presented as an Assembly Program at Bushwick High School on Feb. 8 and 15, 1939. Written by Bernard Jaffe, Chairman of the Science Dept. Produced by the Bushwick H. S. Science Dept. *Cast of characters in the order of their appearance.* Man of Science (an American.) George Washington Carver (a Negro.) Hideo Noguchi (a Jap.) Dr. Joseph Goldberger (a Jew.) Charles Proteus Steinmetz (a German.) George Ellery Hale (an American.) Maud Slye (a girl.)

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one Alabama county wanted to raise a monument to me. Instead, I persuaded them to raise it to the lowly peanut.

America recognizes no superior race, enslaving, what some would have us believe to be an inferior race. Racism has no place in a democracy. And science, too, emphatically gives the lie to the poisonous myth of a superior Aryan race.

MAN OF SCIENCE

Science and democracy raise no racial barriers. Neither does true science erect any barriers against nationality. Science is wholly independent of national boundaries. It makes use of the talents of all the peoples within its fold. Listen to the career of Hideo Noguchi . . .

THE SPIRIT OF NOGUCHI:

I, Hideo Noguchi, was born in 1876 in a tiny village in the mountains of northern Japan. While my mother was in the rice fields, I fell into a hot stove. The fingers of my left hand were burned to cinders. My father was a farmer. I was to be a farmer too, he thought, but that stump of a hand left me unfit for that kind of work. I studied instead, and worked my way through college. In Tokyo, I met Simon Flexner, an American. Then I dreamed of coming here. Finally when I was twenty-three I begged and borrowed my passage to the United States. With grants for American institutions, I roamed through the jungles of Ecuador and Peru, through Yucatan and Brazil, through Africa and the East to do battle with the invisible enemies of mankind. I consecrated my life to one great task, to find cures for the venom of poisonous snakes, for paresis, Oroya fever, and other plagues.

One day word came that hundreds of thousands were dying of yellow fever in Africa. I had had considerable experience with this disease. I was then fifty-one, worn out from overwork and diabetes. I was warned of the dangers. But I felt that my knowledge and skill were needed in the fight. I reached the Gold Coast of Africa in 1927. I was soon up to my ears in work. I was getting closer to the conquest of yellow fever. One morning I felt unusually tired. Soon I was down with a high temperature. I had contracted yellow fever. And before I could complete my work, I, too, became a martyr in the war against this deadly disease. Other brave spirits, however, continued the work where I had left off. And across the Great Divide I have heard that, not long ago, a new serum was finally perfected which protects all men against yellow fever. Americans, Englishmen, Germans, Frenchmen, Russians, Italians; scientists of many nationalities have worked together to accomplish this modern miracle. Science knows no national boundaries.

MAN OF SCIENCE

Science knows no national boundaries. Science and democracy do not discriminate against any man because of his religious views. Protestants, Catholics, and Jews, scientists of all religions have helped to shape America and the world. Listen to the story of Dr. Joseph Goldberger . . .

THE SPIRIT OF GOLDBERGER

I am the spirit of Joseph Goldberger. I was born to Jewish parents who fled from the cossack whip of Czarist Russia to escape religious persecution. I was brought here as a young boy. I grew up on the East Side of New York where my father eked out a living from a little grocery store. I received a free public education, went to college, and then entered the United States Public Health Service. For years I fought microbes. In 1914 I was sent by the government to investigate the cause of pellagra. This was a disease of the poor man in the South. Thousands died of it. They said it was caused by a germ. I didn't think so. Differences of opinion were respected. They let me pursue my own hunch. There followed many years of hard work, disappointments, danger. In the end, I was more fortunate than my fellow investigators. I found the cause of pellagra. It appeared as the result of a faulty diet—a diet very poor or lacking altogether fresh meat, milk and certain vegetables. I found a way to control this disease. Foods rich in vitamin G such as milk, fresh meat and fresh eggs cure it. Pellagra is generally due to poverty and ignorance. Today no one in this country need die of pellagra.

The news of this discovery was broadcast at once to the world. All humanity can benefit from this great contribution of science which came out of a great democracy.

MAN OF SCIENCE

Yes, neither science nor democracy is in conflict with religion. Science and democracy have room for other differences as well. Many men with different political and social ideas have given their best talents to the development of both science and democracy in this country. Listen to the story of Charles Proteus Steinmetz.

THE SPIRIT OF STEINMETZ

At about the close of the American Civil War I was born in Breslau, son of a hunchback lithographer. I, too, grew up a hunchback. As a young man I disagreed politically with Bismarck. I became a member of the Social Democratic Party. Because of my opposition to Bismarck I had to run away to Switzerland. When I was twenty-four I emigrated to the United States and became an American citizen. I lived in Brooklyn, and worked in Yonkers as an engineer for another scientist who had likewise fled his country because of his political differences. The General Electric Company bought out

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my employer's business. I was considered an excellent mathematician and an authority on electrical engineering. The General Electric Company took me along. They gave me difficult problems to solve in connection with dynamos, transformers, and the transmission of electrical power. I solved them. I took out more than two hundred basic patents in these fields. They called me the Jove of Science for I could hurl man-made thunderbolts, huge and terrifying. But I was much more than the popular magician. Through my researches I helped knit this huge country from ocean to ocean. I gave millions of dynamos, electric cars and transformers. I gave it power for its thousands of farms and factories. I helped usher in the Electrical Age: I harnessed electricity for the growth of a mighty country.

And through all these years that I was helping to transform a nation thru science, I openly disagreed with other men in certain political beliefs. Yet here I never once faced imprisonment for my views. Here I stayed and enjoyed working until fifteen years ago when I wore out like my machines and died.

MAN OF SCIENCE

Science and democracy recognize the dignity of man. Democracy regards each scientific worker as a human being free to follow the life of a scholar or a researcher in pure science if he so wishes. The state does not dictate the careers of its scientists. Hear, in brief, the life story of Dr. George Ellery Hale.

THE SPIRIT OF HALE

Less than a year ago I passed beyond the world of living men. I left behind me a monument to both science and democracy. On the summit of Mount Palomar in Southern California there is being completed the largest telescope ever constructed. With this Gargantuan eye men will watch the skies and peer into depths never before reached. No practical or war-like purpose compelled its building. It was raised solely to extend man's knowledge of the universe.

My father was a captain of industry. He was wealthy. He had social position. I might have followed him into business. But the nature of the sun held me spellbound. I wanted to learn the answers to some of its mysteries. I wanted to bring it down into the laboratories of men here on earth. It was an idle goal some thought. But I was permitted to follow my dreams. I gave up the huge, humming factories of my father, and entered the laboratories of science. Were I a citizen of certain countries abroad today I would have been forced to steer my scientific talents into the investigation of new poison gases, more terrifying aerial bombs, and other scientific instruments of human destruction.

Only in a democracy can science be free. Freedom of research, and the recognition of the dignity of the individual made possible that huge finger pointing to the sun through the sky on Palomar Peak.

MAN OF SCIENCE

Science in a democracy extends equal opportunity to women also. Listen to the words of an American woman scientist, Maud Slye. . .

VOICE OF MAUD SLYE:

The last thirty years of my life have been spent with tens of thousands of mice. At the University of Chicago, I am still studying the appearance and growth of cancer in many generations of these little animals. This study will, I hope, be of practical use. It may give us the key to the control and ultimate eradication of the scourge of cancer. I have been called the American Curie. But this does not describe me. I have discovered no magic element such as radium. I am searching instead, for some method of saving the lives of thousands of men and women killed by cancer in the prime of life.

In democracies, women like Marie Curie and myself are encouraged to engage in scientific research just as men are. There is no discrimination. In certain countries abroad today the rights and duties of women have been unjustly limited. Freedom of educational opportunity is gone, and their right to engage in most gainful occupations taken away. And whatever education the girl gets together with her young brother is so distorted that she is permitted to see herself only in the role of a warrior in a world battle that, she is told, is imminent. All of her education, even in drawing and arithmetic is focussed upon preparation for war. In drawing for example, eight-year old boys and girls are given as projects not the peaceful meadow and the cloudless sky, but the aerial attack upon an enemy factory. They are made to draw, not still life, but moving objects; for war means movement. In arithmetic, their lessons are set with problems such as this one: "A bombing plane can be loaded with one explosive bomb weighing 80 pounds, 3 bombs each weighing 200 pounds, 14 gas bombs each weighing 300 pounds, and 100 incendiary bombs each weighing 2 pounds. Find the load carried by such a war plane." Thus are boys and girls crushed intellectually and spiritually. What a difference between such a perverse style of schooling and the free, broad education you boys and girls enjoy in America!

MAN OF SCIENCE

Today America faces a critical period in the history of the world. Beyond the two oceans that wash our shores are men who scoff at democracy, jeer at the equality of mankind, stifle religion, and destroy true science. Men of science

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cannot stand idly by while such things are going on. It is the duty of science to protect democracy; for dictatorship means the destruction of both science and democracy. Already leading men of science are becoming more aware of the challenge. On the last day of 1938, the largest and most representative body of American men of science issued a manifesto which declared, "We can best defend democracy by improving its workings. The scientists has a very definite responsibility in this respect."

And what does democracy say to the threat of dictatorship? We men of science cannot express the answer more forcefully than did the President of the United States very recently. "Dictatorship," he warned all men, "involves costs which the American people will never pay: the cost of our spiritual values. The cost of the blessed right of being able to say what we please. The cost of freedom of religion. The cost of seeing our capital confiscated. The cost of being cast into a concentration camp. The cost of being afraid to walk down the street with the wrong neighbor. The cost of having our children brought up not as free dignified beings, but as pawns molded and enslaved by a machine."

I am a man of science. I want light, not darkness. I want reason, not passion. I want freedom, not slavery. I want peace, not tumult. I want love, not hate. I mean to fight dictatorship and to strengthen democracy. That is my solemn pledge.

BERNARD JAFFE.
Bushwick High School.

DEVELOPING AND TEACHING A UNIT ON BUOYANCY IN NINTH YEAR SCIENCE

For a long time educators have contended that there is a two-fold purpose in education, namely, (1) the development of personality (2) the development of social efficiency. Most teachers, however, have been, and perhaps still are, too absorbed in their subjects to know that their chief mission is not the imparting of information but, the guidance of children in their development. As teachers we must accept the full responsibility for the manifested behavior of the citizenry in their attempts at human adjustments with life situations. Some teachers need a severe jolting to awaken them to the realization that their efforts in teaching have been wasted. The furore created by the recent "Martian Attack" is one instance of the fruitless efforts in the teaching of science.

From the point of view of science teaching, perhaps the best way to develop personality is to give practice in the scientific method of solving problems. Rigorous training in the inductive and deductive thought processes will not only tend to stabilize the child in "straight thinking", but will result in desirable outcomes or attitudes which serve as the foundation blocks of character building. Personality is strengthened through satisfaction obtained in solving one's problems.

Avoidance or conclusions based upon authority, critical evaluation of superstitions, folkways, and propaganda will definitely promote one's emotional security. We must ever keep in mind that our real goal is pupil growth. Anything that contributes towards a well rounded, balanced and more complete growth of the child physically, mentally, emotionally and biologically is the desirable end. As science teachers, we should like to see our pupils gain that confidence, poise, courage, initiative and leadership that result from the scientific habit of thought and action gained through practice with the scientific method of solving problems. We should like to see the manifestation of fearlessness gained through the realization that one who proceeds towards a goal with an open mind and rigorously adheres to this method cannot fail to discover the truth.

The unit herein described is so arranged that the child is offered the opportunity to practice reflective thinking on a series of related problems of intense interest to adolescents. An attempt is also made to integrate social values with each lesson.

The concept of buoyancy is generally recognized as being one of the most difficult ones to teach to young adolescents in ninth year science. Some teachers would tend towards expository methods in this field. Others, would lead the class to the laboratory, give the pupils directions about a stone, overflow can, catch bucket, and so forth, and then expect the child, perhaps through some divine power, to infer a conclusion with regard to buoyancy. This method is good in the sense that it offers each child an opportunity to solve a problem, individually or in groups, and at the same time gives practice in the experimental method. However, for young adolescents, the concept of buoyancy is too abstract for treatment by the laboratory method except for some of the minor problems. The lessons described below lend themselves so admirably to the demonstration type that it would be unfortunate to deprive the pupils of the glamour of making real discoveries as class activities.

*The writer has used the following procedure in his classes at the Franklin K. Lane H. S., Brooklyn, New York.

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*Now at Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn, New York.

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LESSON No. 1. VOLUME, DISPLACEMENT, AND BUOYANCY

PROBLEM NO. 1. HOW MAY WE FIND THE VOLUME OF A STONE?

Preliminary questioning revealed that the majority of the pupils did not know the meaning of volume.

Teacher: "Who will tell the class how much water or sand this box holds without filling it with water or sand?"

Pupil 1. "Measure the box."

Teacher: "Who will volunteer to do this?"

Pupil 2. "I will."

(The pupil was given the box and a ruler. After some hesitancy, the pupil gave the class the three dimensions in inches.)

Teacher: "How much water will the box hold?"

(There was a wave of hands, and the pupil called upon gave the answer in inches, which was then corrected to cubic inches. This was then repeated by another pupil who was requested to use the centimeter scale. The box was then filled with water and its volume was measured by a large measuring cylinder. A quart bottle was then compared with the liter.)

Was the concept of volume really understood by the class? Let us see. A rectangular piece of wood was held up to the class and the question was asked. "How could you find the volume of this wood?"

The class appeared perplexed and only a few hands were raised. The question was then changed "Suppose this wood were empty, could you find its volume?" There was an instant response and a good wave of hands, and the three dimensions were again cited as a means of finding its volume. The class was next shown an irregular stone suspended by a string. "How could you find the volume of this stone? A few hands went up. The class was puzzled. One pupil suggested that the stone be measured. This pupil was given the stone and ruler, but was immediately struck with the impossibility of getting the three dimensions. The class was likewise convinced. "How shall we get the volume of the stone?" One pupil suggested that if the stone were porous like a sponge, then the amount of water entering it could be measured. This was an excellent thought showing that the concept of volume or capacity had been fixed.

Teacher: "We know that no water can enter a stone. Could you measure the water that tries to get into the stone?"

A pupil suggested that a glass be filled to the brim and that the stone be put into it, and the water that overflows be caught and measured. This was actually done by placing the tumbler in a shallow pan. The overflow was then put into a graduated cylinder. Thus the concept of displacement was established.

To fix this more permanently two other ways were shown. The stone was lowered into a graduated cylinder and the difference in level was noted. The overflow can and catch bucket were introduced at this point.

QUESTIONS FOR FIXING KNOWLEDGE

1. Do you suppose the level of the ocean is the same today as it was two thousand years ago? (Launching of ships, falling of meteorites, settling of dust, erosion of land surfaces.)
2. Is there more water in your tub after you get into it? Why?
3. Is there more air in the room before or after you come into the room? Why?

PROBLEM NO. 2. WHY DOES A BALANCED STONE BECOME UNBALANCED WHEN SURROUNDED BY WATER?

A platform scale was suspended on a ring stand. A 1000 gram weight was placed on one pan and an equal weight on the other. "Is the scale balanced?" Some pupils thought the scale was unbalanced. It was then pointed out that the scale might stick and the best way to find out if it were balanced would be to tap it to see if the pointer swung as much to one side as it did to the other side. It is necessary to make this clear, for later, the scale will actuallly stick, because of the friction between the water and the weight suspended in it. One of the weights was then removed, suspended by a string and supported from a point underneath the pan. An empty battery jar was placed in a position surrounding the suspended weight. "Is the scale balanced?" Tapping was resorted to again. Two catch buckets of equal weight were then placed, one on one pan, and one on the other. "Is the scale balanced?" Water from a large measuring cylinder was now poured into the battery jar. "What did you observe?"

Pupil: "The scale is unbalanced."

Teacher: "How would you explain this unbalancing?"

Pupil: "Air pressure acts in all directions and pushes the weight up."

Teacher: Recognizing a most generous and spontaneous wave of hands. "Let us see if this is true." The hands came down instantly. The class was really in the mood.

One could see that they were anxious to let an experiment decide the truth. The battery jar was emptied and put back again so that the suspended weight hung freely within. "Is the scale balanced?"

Class: "Yes!"

Teacher: "Is air pressure acting?"

Class: "Yes."

Teacher: "Why doesn't the air pressure unbalance the scale?"

Pupil: "The air pressure acts equally on both pans."

Teacher: "If water is added to the jar, will the air pressure be changed?"

Pupil: "It cannot, because both pans will still have the same air

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pressure on them as before."

Teacher: "That's fine. Now let us add some water to the jar, and let us watch very carefully to see what upsets the scale." The jar was again filled with water. "What unbalances the scale?" There was a good wave of hands.

Pupil: "The water pushed the weight up. I actually saw it."

The class was evidently pleased and satisfied.

Teacher: "An excellent observation! Do you know of another example in which water exerts a lifting force?"

There was another generous wave of hands.

Pupil: "Water holds my body up when I float."

Pupil: "Water holds ships up, too."

Teacher: "These are all very good examples. But, can you measure how much this lifting force is, in this experiment?"

Pupil: "Put some weights on the pan and find out how much is needed to balance the scale. This will equal the force with which the water is lifting up."

Teacher: "Good! Come up, please, and do it for the class."

The force was found to be 120 grams. "One hundred and twenty grams is called the buoyant force."

At this point, an overflow can and catch bucket were substituted for the battery jar, and the added weights on the pan were removed. The overflow was then added to the bucket on the pan above and the class noticed that the equilibrium of the scale was restored.

Teacher: "Explain the balancing of the scale when the overflow was added to the pan above?"

Pupil: "This shows that the displaced water equals the buoyant force."

Teacher: "An excellent conclusion. Could this have been discovered by another method?"

Pupil: "We could weigh the displaced water."

Teacher: "Very good." The overflow was subsequently weighed and was found to be 120 grams.

Problems for Fixing Knowledge

Problem No. 1. This stone weighs 175 grams when suspended in water. How could you find its weight in air without weighing it directly? Try it.

Problem No. 2. This stone weighs 180 grams in air. How could you find its weight when suspended in water without weighing it directly? Try it.

Problem No. 3. A rock known to weigh 40 pounds in water and displacing 20 pounds of water lies at the bottom of a shallow pond. If a boy, who can at best, exert a lifting force of 50 pounds, finds the rock, will he be able to lift it out of the water? Why?

Problem No. 4. If two stones of unequal size are put into water will the buoyant forces on them be equal? Unequal? Why? How would you find out? Try it.

Problem No. 5. If two bricks of equal size are put into water will the buoyant forces on them be equal? Unequal? Why? How would you find out? Try it.

Problem No. 6. If two blocks of wood of equal size, but one loaded with lead shot to permit it to float at a lower level, are put into water, will the buoyant forces on them be equal? Unequal? Why? How would you find out? Try it.

Problem No. 7. Two ocean liners of the same size and shape are docked at a pier. One has its lowest deck high above the water, while the other has its lowest deck close to the water. Why?

Problem No. 8. Why does a balloon rise?

Inflate several ballons with hydrogen or illuminating gas, one to a much larger size than the others. Hold them in leash with a cotton thread. Why do these balloons tend to rise? On which balloon is the buoyant force greater? Why? How could you measure the buoyant forces on the balloons? Attach to each one a tiny cloth bag containing enough sand to keep them from arising. How are balloons operated so as to make them rise to higher levels? How are they forced down?

If you weigh 100 pounds and your volume is two cubic feet, could you find your weight in a vacuum? Would this be more or less than 100 pounds?

Problem No. 9. Can you float or swim equally well in lake water as in ocean water?

Class discussion should lead to a reconstruction of this problem into the following form: Is the buoyant force exerted by ocean water the same as that of lake water?

(a) Use a stone, and a sensitive spring balance. Weigh the object in air and then in the following liquids: water, salt or copper sulphate solution, molasses, and alcohol. How do the buoyant forces differ?

(b) Use a rectangular stick ½" x ½" x ½", one end weighted with lead shot. Float this in each of the above liquids, marking the level with a rubber band or with a pencil mark in each case.

How would you find the buoyant force of each liquid when the stick is used? Use a catch bucket and a special overflow can made from a glass tube of large bore. Weigh carefully. Put each of the displacements in labeled test tubes.

Do these displacements have the same volume? Do these displacements have the same weight? Why? Since these displacements have the same weight, can you suggest a conclusion with regard to a floating body and its displacement?

Does this conclusion also hold for a stone? Why? Can you suggest why these liquids have different buoyant effects? What happens to a ship as it goes up a river

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from the open ocean? What determines the level at which a floating body floats?

Problem No. 10. If your body were made of stone or iron, could you find a liquid in which you would be able to swim or float?

Melt some lead in a large iron pot. Float a stone, an iron ball, a copper ball. Show iron and stone floating in mercury. Why is mercury able to float iron whereas water or molasses cannot float it? How are rocks (slag) removed from iron when iron is made in a Blast Furnace?

LESSON No. 2. FLOTATION

Problem No. 1. Why Does a Substance Float? Why Does a Substance Sink?

In a preceding problem, the class formulated the conclusion that a floating body displaces an amount of water equal to its weight and that a body sinks if its weight is more than its displacement. However, we must not expect the pupils to have mastered this concept since the aim of the lesson was primarily to show that liquids differ in their buoyant effects.

(a) Use three wood blocks of the same size and shape, but weighted differently with lead shot.

Why does one block float at a high level, and one at a low level? Why does the third one sink? Class discussion follows. (Accept the fact that the heavier block sinks, after experimental verification.)

(b) Use two wood blocks, one small, the other large. Load the small one with lead shot to permit it to sink. The large block weighs more.

Why does the large block float while the small one sinks? Now, the class discovers that the heavier block floats.

Defer the answer awhile to keep the class in suspense. On which block does the water exert the larger buoyant force? How would you prove it? Has the displacement of a body anything to do with whether it sinks or floats? If it has not already been suggested, ask the question: "Would you say, that an object sinks because it is heavier than water?" What is meant by something being heavier than water? Which of these blocks is heavier than water? Then is it right to say that an object sinks because it is heavier than water? The class will agree affirmatively.

(c) Take a piece of aluminum or copper foil. Will this float or sink? Why? Try it. Now shape this into a hemispherical shell by pressing it against a hard ball. Put it back into the water. Why does it float? (Acceptable answer: A body heavier than water will float if its shape is such that its displacement equals its weight.)

Questions For Fixing Knowledge

1. Does an object sink because it is heavier than water? (Yes and No.) Why?
2. Do ships float because they are lighter than water?
3. When an object floats, what determines the level at which it will float? (Weight, shape, buoyancy of liquid.)
4. When a boat sinks does the ocean level rise or fall? Try it with the hemispherical shell made above, using a 1000 c.c. graduate.

Problem No. 2. Why Does a Bath Sponge Float?

(a) Show the class a battery jar containing a bath sponge that sinks in water. (This can be done by squeezing the sponge under water, unknown to the class.) Why does this sponge sink? Pick the sponge out of the water, squeeze it, and put it back into the water. Why does it float?

Why an object sinks or float is answered in the preceding problem. In this case, the sponge has the same shape before and after, and the "why" refers to another factor. The answer may be deferred.

(b) Put three camphor balls into a 1000 c.c. graduate, containing a layer of marble chips and water. Add concentrated hydrochloric acid to the marble chips by means of a funnel and rubber tube. Why do the camphor balls rise to the surface and then sink? Do these experiments suggest some ideas that might be of practical value?

Outgrowth Activities:

1. How are the germs of corn separated from the corn grain?
2. How is sulphur obtained from the ground in Louisiana?
3. How may ores be separated?

Problem No. 3. How May a Sunken Ship Be Salvaged?

Use a brick with six 500 c.c. flasks attached to it. Fill the flasks with water, invert, and allow to rest at the bottom of a large aquarium filled with water. If a suitable aquarium is not available, a half-brick with large test tubes and a large battery jar may be used. Illuminate with electric light and attached reflector. Cover the apparatus to prevent undue distraction

Show the class a brick at the bottom of a battery jar filled with water. This brick represents a sunken vessel. How would you lift it to the surface? Perhaps the experiment with the sponge or camphor balls will suggest an idea? After some discussion, uncover the apparatus suggested above. How would you lift the vessel? Use a bent glass tube of suitable size for displacing the water in the bottles. Why does the boat rise to the surface?

There are two possible explanations;

(1) The ship may be considered as held down by the weight of the water in the tanks besides its own weight. If the water is replaced by

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air, then the total weight of ship and water may be reduced sufficiently to equal the buoyant force of ship and tanks.

(2) When air takes the place of water, the action may be regarded as one involving a displacement of water. The greater this displacement, the greater will be the buoyant force. The class should arrive at this deductively.

Outgrowth Activities:

1. Why does a cartesian diver sink? Why does it rise?
2. How are drydocks constructed and operated?
3. Explain the construction and operation of a submarine.
4. What enables a deep sea diver to walk on the bottom of the ocean?
5. Why are dirigibles made so large?
6. How are dirigibles operated to make them change their altitude?

Problem No. 4. What Does a Hydrometer Measure?

Make a special hydrometer according to the following description. Take a glass tube about fourteen inches long and blow a hole through the side, three inches from one end. Seal the end near the hole, curving it into a hook shape. Insert a strip of paper ruled with heavy lines into the tube and plug the end with a small rubber stopper. Cut the closed end of a rubber balloon and slip it over the tube so that the hole is covered. Tie the two ends of the balloon to the tube, and inflate to any desired size. Suspend a weight or a small bucket filled with lead shot on the hooked end and lower into a tall battery jar filled with water.

Let us consider this a toy. Why does it float? How could you make it float at a lower level? Why is the sinker necessary? What would happen if the sinker were removed? Why is the balloon necessary? Can you suggest a use for this toy? Place a rubber band on the stem at the level of the water. Transfer the apparatus to another battery jar containing alcohol, saturated copper sulphate solution, or molasses.

The class will probably answer that this can be used to measure the buoyant force of a liquid. Show the class a bottle of copper sulphate crystals and a battery jar filled with a saturated solution of the crystals. Fill one hydrometer jar with the saturated solution, and a second jar with a mixture of water and solution.

Do these liquids have the same buoyant force? How would you find out? Show some commercial hydrometers and compare with the toy hydrometer. Test the liquids with a hydrometer. Does an hydrometer measure something other than the buoyant force? Which of these liquids is stronger? How would you prove it? What is your idea of a strong liquid? Repeat using alcohol or molasses.

Outgrowth Activities:

1. How is a storage battery tested?
2. Name some industries in which the hydrometer is used.

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HUMANIZING THE PHYSICS COURSE

Physics, like many other subjects, suffers from college domination. A large part of the subject matter cannot be justified on any other basis than that the pupil may need it in college work. If all students went to college, this state of affairs could be easily justified; in fact, might be preferred. It may be more economical to teach certain principles and procedures to students in the high school with ultimate college attendance in mind. But principles taught for college use are of no value to the student who does not plan to go to college or engineering school and is therefore merely interested in our stated aim: to teach him about the world he lives in. We must teach with the expectation that our pupils will never have another opportunity to study Physics. They must get as much as we can give them and as much as they can receive in a one year Physics course. And what they receive must be unified for them, must present a rational exploration of the scientific world around them, must leave them interested and curious enough to continue outside reading in the subject.

This does not mean that the pupil who intends to go to college will get an inferior background. On the contrary, once he gets to college, he finds himself in a situation similar to the one the high school student faces. He discovers that there is no time for the simple, commonplace applications of science because he must know all the equations of motion. Assumedly, he will need these in post-graduate courses in Physics which are needed in his ultimate study of Relativity and Quantum theory. Thus, we have been working backwards. We start with the highest realm of knowledge, and ask ourselves what preliminary studies are needed to understand them. We then put the required information into the advanced college Physics courses. In turn, the content of the elementary Physics course is determined by the information required in advanced courses. And the content of the high school course is still to a large extent controlled by the requirements of the elementary college Physics course.

What justification can there be for teaching that heat in an electrical circuit is proportional to the square of the current and directly

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proportional to the resistance, when we don't teach elementary radio? Of what use are complicated problems in electrical circuits when we don't even get to radioactivity and recent researches in atomic structure that pupils read about in newspapers? How can we justify the teaching of problems in heat when we barely have time to discuss the most important applications: the gasoline and diesel engines? Of what use is air pressure unless we study the airplane? Yet the teacher of Physics finds himself in a continuous state of nervous prostration trying to rush along the required syllabus, upon which the Regents is based, in order to get in a few of the applications the pupils really want and need.

Term after term we hurry through weeks of study of electrical problems of all sorts only to arrive at the end of the term to find that we have no time for radio. Term after term we rush through "Heat" to the final climax: the gasoline and steam engine, to find that the inflexible schedule allows but one or two days. Many times we must eliminate valuable moving pictures and experiments because time does not permit.

It is idle for me to take it upon myself to teach the things the pupils want, and I know they need, at the expense of the less interesting (to them) college required portions of the course. After all, I would not be doing my duty to them if, as a result of their study of radio, they could not answer some regents problem on calculation of Resistance, Watts, or Volts.

How can these things be justified? Why is it that you can look through regents exam after regents exam and find problems on calculation of pressure, calculation of the force required for a hydraulic press, calculation of the resultant of two forces at an angle, calculation of the moment of a force, calculation of the specific gravity given the weight of an object in air and its weight in water, but not a problem concerning radio, gasoline engines, diesel engines, the airplane, the automobile, radioactivity?

In high school Physics today we lay the groundwork for future study. We prepare pupils — for what? We go through a great deal of intensive preparation, all the while telling them how important it is for them to know this or that which they will shortly study. And then when the basis is laid for the understanding of what they want to understand we must apologetically explain that since there is no time we must leave further study with them—It's all in the textbook.

We are making the study of Physics extensive rather than intensive. The pupils would be far better off with fewer topics more intensively covered.

Practically, I believe the following portions of the courses should be simplified in the direction of qualitative rather than quantitative study. Instead of making the applications of Physics the optional portion, let us make the exact calculation portion the optional portion, and the applications, the required portion.

Pressure—eliminate rigorous calculation of amount of pressure and conversion to sq. in. from sq. ft.

Archimedes Principle—eliminate calculation of specific gravity and volume. Main application should be to floating of boats, submarines, hydrometers, treated semi-quantitatively.

Mechanics—Elimination of forces acting at an angle and resolution of forces. Treatment of all simple machines from the viewpoint of work and only incidentally from specific principles. Simple mental calculations based on the work principle. Add the study of practical machines, as exemplified in the automobile. Eliminate the formal statement of Newton's 2nd Law and acceleration.

Electricity — eliminate complicated circuits and calculation of currents, resistance, voltage, heat in a circuit. Add the study of radio, television, the electric eye, recent atomic discoveries, X-ray, and so forth.

Light, Sound, and Heat, are, I believe adequately treated in our present course. With a few minor eliminations such as longitudinal and transverse waves, specific heat, and with the addition of a more intensive study of engines under Heat, I believe these units would stand the test of practicality and ease of understanding for our pupils.

Since we are bound to a syllabus which will probably not be changed for some time, certain procedures are open to us in the "Humanizing of Physics." In the first place, we must pare to the bone the quantitative aspects of Physics and stress the many practical applications of each topic. Here, I believe, teachers of science should pool their resources and compile a list of phenomena close to the pupils which could be put into problem form for city-wide use. A booklet containing such qualitative problems based upon their own experiences, and including simple home experiments with complete directions would do more to stimulate scientific study than all the teaching we could do.

For example:

1. *To show that air expands when heated:*—Pour hot water into a tumbler and pour out when the tumbler becomes warm. Then invert on a smooth surface such as a tray or a large flat plate. Observe the bubbles. Explain why the tumbler seems to "walk."

2. *To show action and reaction:*—Blow up a balloon and release. The balloon is observed to fly about as a result of the reaction of the escaping air.

3. *Surface tension:*—Pour water into cup, or preferably into a narrow necked bottle, until it is ready

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to overflow. Observe the surface. Float a needle or razor on the surface.

4. *Capillarity:*—Put a stalk of celery into a glass of inky water. Observe the color of the celery after a few days. Put the edge of a block of sugar into water and observe the *capillary* action.

5. *Air exerts pressure upwards:* —Put a cardboard over a glass full of water and invert, removing your hand from the cardboard. Why doesn't the cardboard fall off?

6. *Electrostatics:* — Tear newspaper into 2 sheets about 15″ by 4″. Place one against a rough cloth (trouser legs will do), and rub the paper with the back of the hand. Place the paper against the wall and observe the attraction. Bring two such electrified strips near each other and observe the repulsion. Similar home experiments may be performed with balloons, combs, and so forth.

7. *Radio:*—Turn on the radio on a clear, cold day. Walk across a rug and touch a radiator or pipe. Observe the spark and the apparent "static" in the radio. Try ringing a bell, or calling on a dial phone, or running an electric motor while the radio is on. Explain.

These experiments are not new. In fact they are all a part of the many applications of principles we teach. But as home experiments they take on new meaning to our pupils. They become part of their everyday lives, which formulas can never become. They will increase the power of observation which we are trying to develop, and stimulate curiosity. At the same time, we can remove much of the basic laboratory and demonstration work now performed by us and hand it over to the pupil as homework. We will then find more of our homework performed willingly, and more time will be found in the classroom for the more complicated experiments and applications.

This booklet of home experiments should also contain thought-provoking questions based on home experiences or phenomena close to the pupils, magical tricks, optical illusions, and optional geometric and algebraic puzzles, problems and proofs related to Physics. We would then find that the drudgery of homework, and the apparent lack of interest in optional work would vanish. And with it would come solution to the problem of falling registers in our subject. If the syllabus were adjusted to the pupil, and the course made as interesting as possible, we would find the majority taking the subject rather than the select handful.

At the same time we must stress the "common sense" approach to problems of all kinds. Our pupils all know what common sense is, and with a bit of stress upon the experimental verification of their judgments at home and in school we can easily imbue them with a "common sense" scientific attitude that may actually carry over. Even in the calculation of problems we can stress this common sense method. In fact, there are a few problems in the physics course which cannot be done by common sense. Instead of formula teaching we should always teach the "common sense" way first and then the formula as a short cut. At least this will make otherwise difficult formulas understandable.

Let me give a few examples.

1. The density of iron is 400 lbs. per cu. ft. What is the weight of 20 cu. ft.

Formula Solution:

$$\frac{D}{V} = M$$

$$\frac{400}{20} = M$$

$$400 \times 20 = M$$

$$M = 8000 \text{ lbs.}$$

Common Sense: Since 1 cubic foot of iron weighs 400 lbs., 20 cu. ft. will weigh 20 times as much or 8000 lbs.

2. A block of iron weighs 1400 grams and has a volume of 200 cubic centimeters. What is its specific gravity?

Formula: Sp. gr. $= \frac{\text{Wt. of Obj.}}{\text{Wt. of equal volume of water}}$

Since 1cc. of water weighs 1gm., 200 cc. will weigh 200 gms. Therefore the weight of an equal volume of water is 200 gms.

Sp. gr. $= \frac{1400}{200} = 7$

Common sense: An equal volume of water weighs 200 grams (as above). Since the iron block weighs 1400 grams it weighs 7 times as much as the equal volume of water (200 gms.). Therefore the sp. gr. is 7.

3. What is the wavelength of a 200 v.p.s. note if the speed of sound is 1100 feet per second?

Formula:

Wavelength x frequency = velocity

$$W \times 200 = 1100$$

$$W = \frac{1100}{200}$$

$$= 5.5 \text{ ft.}$$

Comon sense: Since there are vibrations per second, the waves will be emitted one two-hundredth of a second apart. If a wave travels 1100 feet in 1 second it will travel $\frac{1}{200}$ as far in $\frac{1}{200}$ of a second, or 5.5 feet. Therefore the distance between waves, or the wavelength is 5.5. feet.

With these common sense procedures we can certainly make the study of Physics in the High School interesting and meaningful to most of the High School whom we do not reach today.

H. RUCHLIS.
Port Richmond High School.

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HIGH POINTS

NUTRITION SURVEY AT THE SEWARD PARK HIGH SCHOOL*

A project is now under way at the Seward Park High School in the Lower East Side of New York City, which promises to set the groundwork for a much needed scientific approach to the problem of testing nutritional status of the adolescent school child.

What is the importance of this survey? Public Health authorities have long been aware that malnutrition is widespread among the school population. The usual device used to determine this defect has been and still is for the most part, the subjective estimate of the classroom teacher and the occasional school physician. The objective methods in use today involve height-weight scales or scales built on selected bodily measurements. Both the subjective and objective methods mentioned above are of admittedly questionable validity. Granting the inadequacy of these tests, their use has nevertheless demonstrated the widespread nature of malnutrition.

Contrary to present day inadequate procedures, this study will attempt to describe more elaborate and scientific procedures for determining nutritional status. As will be shown, the most up to date clinical and laboratory techniques are being applied to determine not only nutritional status but also its relationship to health status. One of the basic expected outcomes of this study, will be the determination of nutritional standards that will stem from an evaluation of the tests used here.

Objectives.

In an article, "The Clinical Aspects of Nutrition," [1]Dr. H. D. Kruse, of the Milbank Memorial Fund, has stated the objectives of this study. A summary of this statement follows: (1.) to determine the nutritional status, normal, latent or manifest malnutrition; (2.) to discover the cause of malnutrition and show their relationship to it; (3.) to organize, develop and evaluate several biochemical and physiological tests for widespread use in nutrition testing.

Facilities.

In order to carry out the test procedures to be described later, certain special facilities were constructed and organized. Two permanent medical examination rooms were built into each of the two school infirmaries. In addition a two story office building at 20 Norfolk Street, a block from the school, has been equipped to serve as a series of examining rooms, a blood testing laboratory and a clerical and statistical office. Further laboratory facilities were arranged for, at the Kips Bay Yorkville Health Center of the New York City Board of Health.

Preliminary Procedures

In preparation for the tests, the students are orientated in many ways. There are the publicity measures carried out in the hgyiene period, school assemblies, teacher conferences, school loud speaker broadcasts and school newspaper. Parent consent cards are distributed and collected when signed by the health education departments. A hygiene period is devoted to a lesson conducted by a nutritionist on the subject of filling out certain prepared forms designed to record the complete food intake of each student over a two day period. Finally, individual appointments are made for each student to report for the first of the tests series.

Tests.

These first tests are performed in the school medical examination offices. In the morning, blood and urine specimens are taken. (The student eats no breakfast before the test in order to eliminate temporary concentrations of food substances in the blood plasma. He is given a free breakfast in the school lunch room after the blood is taken.) In the afternoon, a complete physical examination is performed, including the recording of a careful medical history and an inoculation of tuberculin for tuberculosis testing.

The next day the student reports to the Norfolk Street building. Here a series of tests is administered. No particular order is observed: the student is ushered into any examination room as it becomes available. (In describing the following tests, the order will be: as they relate to the (1.) physical examination, (2.) diet analysis, (3.) physiological, (4.) biological, and (5.) chemical analyses of the blood.

The first group of tests add significant information concerning the physical status of the test subjects. A combination recording of the heart action showing both an electrocardiogram and a sound track of heart sounds is made. A dentist examines the teeth following the method standardized by the United States Public Health Service. X-Ray pictures are taken of the bones to determine their growth and development. The students who show a positive tuberculin reaction are scheduled for a chest x-ray at a future date. The urine specimen is analyzed in the laboratory. In a general way, these tests refer to physical or health status.

*The writer wishes to acknowledge with appreciation the invaluable assistance of Dr. William Schmidt, Director of this Survey, and Mr. Alexander Breinan, High School of Science, in preparing this report.

[1] See *Medical Women's Journal*, Feb. 1939.

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The diet analysis includes three major steps. The first step proceeds from the information secured in the hygiene classroom as previously described. The second elaborates this food record in an interview between the student and a nutritionist. The third, secures further data by means of a home visit during which a trained enumerator interviews the parent. All three steps supply information about the students' food intake. This information is recorded on prepared forms which are sent to the clerical division where the dietary is equated in terms of grams, calories, units and other significant terms. Thus a fairly accurate picture of the students' diet is secured.

The physiological tests include a galvanic test of neuromuscular response, a capillary resistance test and two dark field adaptation tests. The first two physiological tests secure information that relates to the presence of vitamin C in the organism. The dark field adaption tests measure the ability of the eye to adapt itself to vision in the dark, which ability is related to the presence of vitamin A.

The last group of tests are performed on the blood specimen which, packed in ice, is brought by messenger from the school to the laboratory. Here both the red and white blood corpuscles are counted. Other laboratory testing procedures are performed to derive the mean hemoglobin (iron containing, oxygen bearing) content per red cell. A biochemical analysis of the blood serum shows the ascorbic acid (vitamin C), phosphorous, calcium and phosphatase (a substance related to calcium-phosphorous metabolism) concentrations. Some of these procedures are performed at the laboratory of the Kips Bay Yorkville Health Center.

Sponsors and Staff.

The survey is under the joint sponsorship of the United States Public Health Service, the New York City Department of Health, the Departments of Preventative Medicine and Pediatrics of the Cornell University Medical College, the New York City Board of Education and the Milbank Memorial Fund. The Works Progress Administration is coöperating.

Dr. William Schmidt of the Cornell Medical College is the director. Working with him is a staff of seventy odd persons including, doctors, nurses, dentists, hematologists, nutritionists, technicians, statisticians, clerks, messengers and maintenance men.

Results Expected.

The conclusions of this series of tests promise to throw new light on the size, nature and distribution of the nutritional problem of the high school population in general and specifically of the high school population of the Lower East Side of New York City. The need for a re-evaluation of educational practices regarding nutrition may be demonstrated. In addition, the extent of non-dietary factors influencing nutritional status and conversely, the effect of malnutrition on the health and disease status of the individual may be revealed. Important inter-relationships between disease and nutrition may be discovered leading to a basis for therapeutic measures. In sum, there is promise of a new importance for nutrition testing especially in school health service, using instruments and procedures developed in this survey.

Educational Applications

This survey will have some bearing on three phases of educational activity. The need for changes in educational principles and practices in the school, in home contacts and in community relationships may be indicated.

In the school itself, the school health survey of the future may well include nutritional testing devices hitherto confined to clinics and laboratories. More careful tests may indicate needs for instruction as yet undiscovered. A revision of nutrition teaching both as to content and method may result. The present practice of supplying free school lunches to undernourished children will probably be found to be inadequate and the inclusion of a school breakfast found necessary. These are a few of the possible educational resultants within the school.

The already obvious need for home coöperation in student health matters can expect a new stimulus. This survey probably will disclose needs for an emphasis upon parent-teacher conferences, interviews and exchanges of letters. Exact information will be available so that proper nutrition can be discussed with parents both from homes of low or insufficient income and others of the higher income levels. (Previous surveys have disclosed that malnutrition is not limited to children from low income groups, but that it occurs in children from all economic levels.) In addition, the student, after undergoing the test procedure, may bring home with him a new insight into the meaning of nutrition. He may be able to influence, even educate, his parents into more scientific food habits.

The third phase, the possible relationships of educational activity and the community, growing out of this survey, is a broad one. It embraces the public health function of the school through nutrition testing. Specifically, it includes any efforts by educational leaders to influence government agencies to provide for improved nutrition of the school population. This may mean provision for widespread testing, extension of free food served in schools to the undernourished, wide

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spread community educational campaigns, and a new approach to the problem of agricultural surpluses and trade barriers.

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HONOR SCHOOLS AND TRAINING FOR LEADERSHIP

I. INTRODUCTION

Much of the recent discussion of honor schools in the New York City high schools has dealt with the need for training the bright students for leadership in a democracy. This is the essence of Dr. Alpern's argument in favor of a super-honor school for students with I.Q.'s of 140 and over. A special school, unusual and expensive educational advantages, and scholarships would be an investment in "competent leadership in a democracy."[1]

The ramifications of this prposition cannot be discussed adequately within the limits of this paper. All that can be accomplished here is to raise two questions:

a. Can we successfully select those who will become leaders?

b. Can an honor school provide the optimum environment for training in leadership?

[1] (Cf. Dr. H. Alpern, "The Super-Honor School Next Step in the Education of the Superior Student in the Secondary Schools of New York," HIGH POINTS, 21: 20-26, May, 1939.)

CAN WE SUCCESSFULLY SELECT THOSE WHO WILL BECOME LEADERS?

Dr. Hollingsworth, a foremost authority on the education of bright children, has declared that the leaders of any normal social group are not the extremely intelligent, but those who are not too much above the average; perhaps those from 125 to 135 in I.Q.[1]

The same point has been made in a study of the characteristics of high school leaders. The mean I.Q. of the leadership group in the high school studied was 117.43, with a range from below 100 to above 140.[2]

It is not difficult to see why this is so. The masses, whether a group of high school students or the general population of the country, are not likely to follow individuals who are beyond their ability to follow. Thurman Arnold, in his *Folklore of Capitalism* (Yale University Press, 1937), has shown concretely the fundamental importance of the non-rational factors that determine the direction in which the crowd moves. Such deviations from logical thought and action are difficult for the "super-intellect." The mental qualities which enable a person to analyze a situation scientifically, to suspend judgment and evaluate honestly, make it difficult to attain that belief in oneself and that decisiveness of action which mark the successful leader.

While Dr. Hollingworth may be correct in asserting that, "No one has ever advocated stupidity as a qualification for a leader," it does not follow that we can select leaders solely on the basis of intelligence. "It has been found that individuals with quite different combinations of qualities may often attain equal success in some specific leadership situation. This means that the personality requirements of certain posts are characterized by a good deal of latitude and do not admit too narrow a statement of needed personal attributes . . . There should be full realization that the intelligence factor is only one, and that deficiency here may be compensated for by superior development of other useful qualities such as perserverance."[4]

Mr. Tead emphasizes "specific leadership situation," and points out that leadership qualifiations for one situation are much different from leadership qualifications for another situation. That raises, of course, the question of what the qualifications of a leader are. Can a definitive list of qualifications for "social leadership" be worked out? Isn't Dr. Alpern guilty of assuming that the ability to lead in the field of science or art or social studies is identical with the ability to lead in a social situation?

Unfortunately, if we attempt to broaden the basis of selection, we encounter difficulties. Despite her enthusiasm for ability grouping, Dr. Hollingworth admits, "Having selected the highly intelligent, can we now go further and select impersonally from among them those who have in highest degree the additional qualities of a leader? The answer is, Not yet. We have devised at present no better instrument than fallible personal ratings for the appraisal of such traits as courage, honesty, loyalty, and the like."[5]

Even if we could measure these intangibles objectively, there would remain another consideration. "Prospective leaders should not be educated and trained in separate schools organized only for those who show marked leadership traits when young. To have it so would exclude children whose leadership ability does not show itself early."[6]

Bogardus also discusses the correlation between socio - economic factors and early development of leadership traits. It is probably true,

[1] (Cf. L. Hollingworth, *Gifted Children*, Macmillan, 1926, pp. 131-133 also L. Hollingworth, "What We Know about the Early Selection and Training of Leaders," *Teachers College Record*, 40: 575-592, April 1939.)

[2] (Cr. M. Brown, *Leadership among High School Pupils*, Teachers College Contributions to Education, no. 559, 1933.)

[4] (O. Tead, *Art of Leadership*, McGraw-Hill, 1935, p. 274.)

[5] (L. Hollingworth, "What We Know, etc.," p. 579.)

[6] (A. T. Jones, *The Education of Youth for Leadership*, McGraw-Hill, 1938, p. 229.)

[7] (Cf. M. Brown, *op. cit.*)

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as shown by Miss Brown[7] that the pupils who manifest leadership in elementary and high schools are above the average in socio-economic status. If we should select these more fortunate pupils to be trained for the role of leaders, we would thereby negate one of the functions of the school in a democracy, that of offsetting as much as possible the effects of differences in socio-economic status. For all practical purposes, we would be limiting the opportunity to train for leadership to a particular section of the community. Are we so sure about the infallibility of our selective processes that we can afford to take such a step?

Can an Honor School Provide the Optimum Environment for Training in Leadership?

"First of all, those individuals who have real intellectual capacity should be given an opportunity to develop the social side of their nature so that they will have a greater chance of being selected by popular vote. Second, those who exercise their franchise of voting should have some very definite training in the selection of leaders. Rather than isolate all of the gifted children in special classes where there is even less chance of their having the valuable social experience they need, their curriculum should be enriched by the opportunity of assuming responsibility and giving leadership to the activities of their fellows."[8]

Leadership develops not merely from the biological, psychological, and other traits of the individual, but also from environmental factors that create the need and opportunity for leadership.[9] Certain so-called character and personality traits do not determine leadership except in a particular environment with a particular social group.[10]

"While there are distinct differences in leadership ability, while the majority will follow more than they will lead, we are not justified in separating one group from another and planning one kind of education for leaders and another for followers. Every normal person is a leader in some respect, and every leader is and must be a follower. In fact, leadership and followship are dispensable elements in citizenship. Leaders are not leaders in everything; the very success of their leadership in one line of activity makes it essential that they deliberately place themselves under those others who will lead them in other activities . . . The abilities necessary for efficient leadership can be developed only in an environment that is normal, that is like that in which leadership will normally function. This is not to say that special attention, special techniques are not necessary. It merely asserts that to separate any group of prospective leaders entirely from other children, with the purpose of developing leadership traits that will be effective later on when used in connection with normal children or normal people, is certain to be ineffective, for it violates one of the fundamental principles of efficient learning."[11]

The above citations hardly need comment. Suffice it to say that the proponents of the honor school as a training school for leaders must consider the proposition that leadership cannot be developed "in vacuo." The qualities of leadership do not actively exist except in combination with a situation that calls for leadership. Can "social leadership" be developed in the rarefied atmosphere of the honor school?

Conclusion.

In discussing the problems of education for labor leadership, Mr. Mark Starr has remarked, "Only frightened infants in the dark cry out for an individual to rescue them."[12] Is that what is happening to us? Are we subconsciously expressing the fear that education of the masses cannot stop the spread of totalitarianism, and are we therefore rushing to construct incubators in which to hatch leaders who will save democracy for us? If so, then we ought to remember that "education for leadership" is not new; it has been with us since before the days of Plato. In modern times "education for leadership" has given us British imperialism and German militarism. Perhaps our best defense against totalitarianism would be to improve the instruction of the masses in the ways of democratic living, and to leave the honor schools, if we must have them, to their original function of providing enriched educational opportunities for the highly intelligent.

Albert H. Sager.

[8] (E. D. Partridge, *Leadership among Adolescent Boys*, Teachers College, Contributions to Education, no. 608, 1934, p. 97-98.)

[9] (H. S. Person, "Leadership as a Response to Environment," *Educational Record*, vol. 9, Supplement, January, 1928, pp. 10-21.)

[10] (E. M. Westburgh, "Studies in Leadership," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 25:418-23, 1931.)

[11] (Jones, *op. cit.* pp. 34, 330.)

[12] (M. Starr, "Labor Leadership," *Teachers College Record*, 40:615-624, April, 1939).

THE UTILIZATION OF RADIO PROGRAMS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

In the competition among media of expression aimed at securing the attention of Young America, the spoken word, through the impetus given it by radio, has gained much at the expense of the traditional written word. Radio has greatly expanded the educational potentialities of the spoken word because it brings to an ever increasing audience a diversified competence, a scholarly authority and a mundane freshness beyond the ability of any single teacher or faculty. So far the field of radio education has been limited in the main to Public Affairs and the humanities where no special laboratory ex-

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perience or drill work is necessary. Perhaps it is the field where education by radio is most important for here is where behavior is linked with sound intellectual attributes.

Since the direction of the radio broadcast is from speaker to listener, the problem of radio education is to make radio instruction an active process on the part of the listener and not abandon him to a painless passivity. The teacher's duty is twofold: to broaden the area of receptiveness so that the listener will be able to examine critically diverse points of view and higher levels of cultural enterprises; and to utilize radio broadcasts for vitalizing the life and work of the classroom. Moreover, by broadening the area of receptiveness so as to include worthwhile educational broadcasts, the teacher projects his teaching beyond his classroom into the homes of his pupils. The pupil who listens to "America's Town Meeting" is educating not only himself but his family as well. Great as may be the educational value of radio in the home, its value in classroom instruction, however, is what concerns us most directly as teachers.

The routine of classwork and the requirements of the syllabus are likely to produce a reluctance in the teacher "to take time out" for some "extra" educational material that is not endemic in the textbook or the plan book. But it is precisely because the society about which we teach is dynamic that we can not bind between the covers of even the newest, the biggest and the best book. We must "take time out" for the troublesome "extra" material. What better way to come close to this dynamism than to hear Chamberlain and Hitler in a battle of words or to hear the University of Chicago faculty discuss the monopoly investigation or to listen to Southern representatives relate the problems of their section? Yet, the teacher who is willing to look beyond the textbook and supplementary sources like magazines, newspapers, collateral readings, and motion pictures may hesitate to utilize the radio because desirable programs do not often coincide with preordained plans or the even tenor of classwork ways. Of what use to the teacher is the radio when he is teaching the "American Constitution" and "America's Town Meeting" is concerned with "America's Stake in the Far East?" If only he had known that Senator Taft and Representative T. V. Smith would be debating the nature of that very Constitution at the same time that he was teaching it in school! It seems comparatively easy to relate radio to current history, but not infrequently appear programs dramatizing "The Clipper Ship," "The Story of the Railroad," and the "Continental Congress."

What the teacher needs, then, is a guide to a wide variety of forthcoming radio programs so that by his resourcefulness he may make the best possible use of these bounteous riches offered him. To fill exactly this need, the Department of Social Studies prepares a weekly radio guide distributed every Monday morning to all teachers in the school who are asked to read it to the pupils and to post it in their classrooms. This radio guide, called "History in the Making" lists the time, station, topics and speakers of selected programs for the week beginning the Monday of issue and extending through Sunday. An effort is made to list as many programs as possible, however controversial their nature may be. Theorists and politicians, correspondents and historians, New Dealers, and anti New-Dealers, business men and labor leaders, Rep. Dies and Earl Browder—all have their day in court. Controversy is a good educator: let every point of view be heard! Perhaps the only factors that will deny a program a listing in this radio guide are its sectarian religious aspect or the hour at which it is to be given. Unless the program is of exceptional value it is unreasonable to expect pupils to listen to a program at 10:45 P.M. Some late programs are listed for those teachers who might want to listen at that hour.

The main source for the preparation of the listings in "History in the Making" is the radio page of the Sunday *New York Times*. Since only the programs of the major networks are listed here, it is necessary to supplement this source with bulletins and releases sent on request by stations like WEVD and WMCA which offer many excellent educational programs. The average number of programs listed is about 35 to 40. Lest the teacher be disposed to ignore this guide when confronted with such an encyclopedic collection, those programs which might be of special service in the social studies are starred. Thus, certain programs of immediate relevance to the content of the syllabus or of special significance stand out above the mass.

If one or more of the listed programs should meet with a welcome response in some teacher's mind or planbook, that teacher must then consider how he may use it for instructional purposes. Regardless of the ingenuity of the assignment he now plans to make, he must consider these obstacles: many pupils do not have radios; some are working at the hour assigned; some parents may resent what they consider an attempt to dictate the radio tastes of the home—perhaps father would prefer to listen to a boxing match, mother to Baby Snooks or sister to Jack Benny. After these obstacles have been considered, the teacher must then attempt to introduce, not artificially, into the classroom what has been heard over the radio at home. Assigned students may reenact "America's Town Meeting" by impersonating specific speakers; after they have recapitulated their

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prototypes' speeches in five-minute addresses of stirring eloquence, they may be subjected to questioning by the rest of the class, or, instead of asking questions, the rest of the class may be called on to comment. For a lesson of this type, the complete technique of the "Town Meeting" should be employed—speakers, moderator, and announcer. Lest the rest of the class regard this as a lark, the teacher should be certain to make it responsible for active participation by questions, comment, original essays or supplementary assigned preparations. Many radio programs lend themselves to this type of learning. Other methods that may be employed are round table discussions, special written or oral reports, and dramatizations.

More important than simply the introduction of new information is the training of the powers of pupils in independent and critical reflection. Fresh and orthodox points of view—the novel as well as the traditional—must stand before the critical judgment of young scholars. The interplay of ideas reveals the strength and weaknesses of each. Of course, controversy is not to be encouraged as an end in itself, but only as a means for exposing propaganda, teaching tolerance and practicing democracy. The practical utilization of radio programs is an excellent device for these purposes.

IRWIN M. TAYLOR.
Boys High School.

THE SCHOOL ORGAN

For several years I had, as an extra assignment in addition to mathematics teaching, organ playing in the auditorium during the last half of the lunch periods. An evaluation of such work may be of general interest. An organ recital as a lunch period option does not appeal to every high school pupil. However, options are not obligatory. Why should an option be of interest to every pupil? One of the greatest mistakes being made in present educational practice is the emphasis on social activities to the exclusion of individual growth. Education as training for democracy, if it is to rest upon a firm foundation, must be concerned primarily with the development of the individual.

The money invested in an expensive pipe organ or Hammond electric organ is not making adequate returns when the equipment is used only once a week for assemblies. Such a marvelous instrument should be used daily. Those pupils who are interested in music should be given the opportunity of enjoying and appreciating beautiful music. With a loud speaker system, the listeners can be advised to listen for the plaintive English horn solo in Dvorák's New World Symphony. They can follow the flutes in Mendelssohn's Magic Flute. They can thrill with the trumpets in Wagner's Prelude to Act III from Lohengrin. They can hear the question, then listen to the answer in a Bach fugue. Not all are exclusively interested in jazz or swing music. Familiarity with an organ transcription or operatic selection will result in greater understanding and pleasure when they hear a symphony orchestra in Carnegie Hall, an opera on the stage of the Metropolitan Opera House, or either on their automobile or home radio sets. One of the secondary school aims should be the development of activities which will result in a wiser use of leisure time. With technological advances working hours are bound to be reduced. The high school pupil must be prepared to use this greater leisure to his advantage. Enjoyment of music is one means of accomplishing this objective.

I have selected at random one week's program.

MONDAY

1. *Prelude to Act III from Lohengrin*	Wagner
2. *Song of India*	Rimsky Korsakow
3. *Parade of the Wooden Soldiers*	Jessel
4. *Hawaiian Fantasia*	Stewart
5. *Pomp and Circumstance*	Elgar

TUESDAY

1. *Air du Roi Louis XIII*	Ghys
2. *Ase's Death from Peer Gynt Suite*	Grieg
3. *Londonderry Air*	Lemare
4. *Serenade*	Schubert
5. *Jubilate Postulate*	Kinder

WEDNESDAY

1. *Prelude and Fugue in F*	Bach
2. *Chansonette*	Friml
3. *Berceuse from Jocelyn*	Godard
4. *Serenade from Les Millions D'Arlequin*	Drigo
5. *Pilgrims' Chorus from Tannhäuser*	Wagner

THURSDAY

1. *Song of the Volga Boatmen*	Russian Air
2. *Romanza*	Mozart
3. *Negro Spiritual—Nobody Knows the Trouble I See*	Gillette
4. *Prelude from Faust*	Gounod
5. *War March of the Priests from Athalie*	Mendelssohn

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FRIDAY

1.	*Prelude and Fugue in C Minor*	Bach
2.	*The Rippling Brook*	Gillette
3.	*Largo from Xerxes*	Handel
4.	*Indian Love Call*	Friml
5.	*Finlandia*	Sibelius

The beautiful strains of Christmas carols on the organ, echoing through the halls during Christmas week, thrilled pupils of all religious faiths. Tolerance is an outcome of the study and appreciation of German music, Italian operas, and English chorales.

Surprisingly, more boys than girls were interested. A small, but serious, group appeared daily for the recital. The half hour of organ music furnished teachers as well as pupils peace and rest in the midst of a busy day. The soft strains of the choir organ or the majestic orchestral effects of the great organ are greatly to be preferred to the noise and confusion of the cafeteria. Lunch period options should provide for study, bridge, motion pictures, social dancing in the gymnasium, but such activities should complement, not supersede, the organ recital. The organ recital can be an effective instrument for developing appreciation of musical master-pieces and increasing the musical literacy of the high school pupil.

LILLIAN MOORE.

Far Rockaway High School.

AFTER-SCHOOL WORK AND SCHOOL ACCOMPLISHMENT

In an attempt to get a clearer picture of the general interests and activities of the student body of Haaren High School, as an aid to college advisement work, the writer, last year, conducted a general survey, several phases of which have already been reported on.

One of the items covered was the after-school and Saturday work engaged in by the pupils, whose age range is from thirteen to over twenty as shown in the following table:

AGE-GRADE MAKE-UP OF SCHOOL

Age	Grade 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Totals
13	39	7	5	—	—	—	—	—	51
14	264	96	96	24	7	2	—	—	489
15	268	192	425	140	69	34	18	5	1,151
16	127	150	421	340	296	192	114	41	1681
17	27	44	166	219	208	240	292	124	1,320
18	2	—	22	40	65	114	158	134	535
19	—	—	2	3	5	13	39	55	117
20+	—	—	—	2	—	3	16	9	30
Totals	727	489	1,137	768	650	598	637	368	5,374

It will be seen from this table that there is a spread of eight years or more between the youngest and oldest reporting. Not that only, but in each grade there is a difference of from five to seven years between extremes. What effect such a wide discrepancy in age has on the learning process is worth investigation.

Of these 5,374 pupils answering, 1,158 or 21½%, reported that they worked either afternoons or Saturdays or both. It might be expected that only the older pupils and those in the upper grades would be burdened with this after school obligation, but the following table shows that this is not so.

AGE AND GRADE OF THOSE WHO WORK

Age	Grade 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Totals
13	7	7	—	—	—	—	—	—	14
14	29	21	11	3	—	—	—	—	64
15	35	37	54	12	12	12	4	—	166
16	29	30	89	63	60	31	35	6	343
17	14	12	48	51	57	45	79	33	339
18	—	—	11	12	19	30	49	51	172
19	—	1	1	2	1	2	19	24	50
20	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	5	10
Totals	114	108	214	143	149	120	191	119	1,158

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The type of work the pupils engaged in was not ascertained but the number of hours a week they worked was. There was a wide range here, from one to more than fifty hours a week being devoted to work as shown by the following:

Hours worked per week	*Numbers working*	*Hours worked per week*	*Numbers working*	*Hours worked per week*	*Numbers working*
1	1	19	20	37	12
2	7	20	64	38	7
3	16	21	20	39	12
4	23	22	28	40	14
5	38	23	20	41	2
6	28	24	49	42	7
7	20	25	37	43	9
8	40	26	24	44	7
9	41	27	31	46	2
10	80	28	30	47	2
11	19	29	17	48	4
12	77	30	62	49	2
13	16	31	29	50	4
14	12	32	24	53	2
15	59	33	16	54	7
16	20	34	15	—	—
17	14	35	20	—	—
18	34	36	14	—	—

When the number of hours devoted to school work, thirty in school and from five to fifteen on "home-work," is added to the number of hours devoted to after-school work, it will be seen that those who work have a rather heavy burden to carry. What effect that extra work has on their school accomplishment is indicated by a comparison of the failure record of those who work and those who do not.

COMPARATIVE FAILURE RECORD OF THOSE WHO WORK AND THOSE WHO DO NOT WORK

	Failed no subjects		*Failed 1 subject*		*Failed 2*		*Failed 3*		*Failed 4*	
Grade	*Workers %*	*Non-workers %*	*Workers %*	*Non-Workers %*	*Workers %*	*Non-workers %*	*workers %*	*Non-workers %*	*Workers %*	*Non-workers %*
2	40	52½	31	23½	20	19	6	2	3	3
3	47	59½	25	21½	15	10½	7	6	6	2½
4	32	48½	33	28	18	16	12	6	5	1½
5	46	50½	33	33	13	10	5	5	3	1½
6	42½	58	31½	25½	18	11½	6	4½	2	½
7	47½	57½	28	27½	17	10½	6	4½	1½	—
8	46½	54	32	31	18	13½	3½	1½	—	—

(Grade 1 was omitted because, in some subjects, the pupils were advanced from grade one to grade two whether they passed or failed. The table above is to be read: 40% of those in grade two who worked after school or on Saturdays failed no subjects, 52½% of those in grade two who did not work after school failed no subjects; 31% of those in grade two who worked failed one subject, and so forth.

From this table it will be seen that, with only three exceptions, those who work after school have a consistently poorer accomplishment record than those who do not work. In the light of this, may it not be worth while to investigate further to determine whether these results are valid for high school students throughout the city? If they are, some steps should be taken to remedy the situation. If it can be more or less definitely established that those who work after school and therefore haven't the time necessary to devote to their studies, have a poorer school record, it may be advantageous to limit the number of subjects the pupils may take, to shorten the school day for the workers or to put them into classes designed especially for workers. Permitting them to go on without taking cognizance of the handicap under which they attend school makes for an increased retardation rate which is uneconomical from the point of view of both school system and pupils. Furthermore, and possibly of far greater significance, such procedure is unsound psychologically, for continued school failure will make for more failure with a consequent increasing distaste for and ultimate abandonment of school work by those who probably need it most.

A. KLEIN.
Haaren High School.

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THE GENERAL ORGANIZATION AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL COMPETENCE*

The term "social competence" has been defined many times. For the purpose of this discussion of the school general organization as a potential means of inculcating social competence, I beg leave to submit one more definition: social competence is the ability and determination of the citizen of a democratic society to employ the procedures and skills of democracy for broad, pro-social, and ever more humane ends. In these desperately tragic days of world-wide crisis, when the life of democracy is so appallingly menaced—even by forces within our nation, I need scarcely dwell on the urgent need for developing such social competence.

The general approach to the problem of developing social competence seems obvious. The school must create the greatest possible number of concrete opportunities for children to *practice actively* the attitudes, skills, procedures, instruments, and ideals of democracy. Mere incidental discussion in classrooms is not enough. *Extensive experience is essential.* And the general organization of the school, if it could only be vitalized, could go a long way toward providing this essential extensive experience in democratic living.

*(A talk delivered at the panel on *Social Competence* at the Ninth Annual City-Wide Conference of Junior High Schools, March 25th, 1939.)

Are the general organizations of the majority of our schools at present adequate for the teaching of social competence? Although I have not made any comprehensive survey, it is my impression that they suffer from certain basic defects:

1. The average general organization has the *form* but not the substance of democracy. Children elected to offices in the general organization have no legislative powers, no really vital function, and on particular purpose. It seems that they are frequently given makeshift monitorial assignments and occasionally discuss athletic matters. (Of course, there are some notable exceptions.)

2. G. O. election campaigns, as a consequence of the lack of real issues, generally degenerate into an exercise in purely personal ballyhoo and empty demagogy—perfect drill for the future Fascist.

3. Consequently, opportunities for practice in constructive, democratic social thinking and action are lost.

A fourth defect is the usual requirement that a pupil must pay his G. O. dues in order to vote. This feature of most G. O. elections is undemocratic. It is impossible to say how many children have lost the right to vote because they could not pay their G. O. dues and were reluctant to plead poverty. One of my pupils once argued that the vicious poll taxes used in the South to disfranchise the economically unfortunate are perfectly just. "Aren't they just like our G. O. dues?" he asked. We should in no way give encouragement to the widely held notion that political rights are a luxury restricted to the well-to-do. The requirement of G. O. dues for voting should be abolished.

Now enough of criticism. Specifically, how may the general organization be reformed so as to realize its maximum potential benefits as a means of teaching social competence in a democracy? The answers to this question seem almost obvious.

1. The general organization might well be converted into a pupil congress consisting of representatives from each official class of the school. Such a congress could meet weekly during club periods under the guidance of a faculty adviser. It could devote itself to such matters as: lateness, school cleanliness, athletics, publications, monitorial affairs, awards, lunchroom improvement, safety, deportment, manners, personal appearance, creation of a "big brother" association. (This list of functions is not intended to be rigidly definitive, but only tentative and suggestive.)

The powers of the pupil congress might include the power of petition to the principal or faculty council. The pupil congress might also be authorized to legislate, i.e. to make codes of awards and penalties. Of course, such codes should require the approval of the principal and faculty before they become law. (Such a proviso would not nullify the democratic idea, any more than the veto power of the President of the United States nullifies the democracy of our nation.)

Every member of the pupil congress would give his official class a weekly report of each meeting in the home-room period. He would also present to the congress the wishes and suggestions of his class as they would be determined by vote in oral English, written English, civics, and home-room periods. Such a pupil congress as I have described has already been established at Junior High School No. 136, and P. S. 174, both in Brooklyn. (The latter school is an elementary school.)

2. Another worthwhile reform might be the writing of a school constitution. This could evolve naturally from the sessions of the pupil congress and would simply be a crystallization in written form of the decisions of the congress. This would be a dramatic, dynamic activity lesson of school-wide scope in the meaning of a constitution, that most fundamental of the instruments of democracy. (It should be noted that such a school constitution in no way excludes the possibility of democratically formulating special class rules whenever they become necessary in individual classes.)

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How would these suggestions further the cause of education for social competence in a democracy? The answers seem obvious:

1. These reforms would evoke the maximum participation of all pupils in active self-government. They would develop the *habit* of government by the people, of the people, and for the people.

2. These reforms would foster the *habit* of active, persistent vigilance by constituents over their representatives.

3. The suggested changes would aid in developing the skills of democratic leadership and the democratic representation of groups by individuals. These changes would also tend to create a deep sense of responsibility and responsiveness on the part of a representative to the mass of his constituents.

4. The reforms proposed would afford our pupils practice in the essential art of formulating laws or courses of action to meet group needs and aspirations. The implications of such an advance are tremendous. It would reinforce the conception that law exists for people—not people for laws as in totalitarian societies. It would also reinforce the experimental (let's-see-how-it-works-out) attitude toward laws and principles—an attitude the urgent need for which has been so convincingly set forth by John Dewey.

5. The suggestion for reform would inculcate the *habit* of constructive social criticism and corresponding democratic action on the part of the general school population.

6. The reforms suggested above avoid the pitfalls of the last decade's child-centered school with its exaggerated glorification of the individual child's spontaneous impulses and with its consequently dangerous stress of a social, anarchistic individualism. The G. O. proposed would be a medium for converting egotistic, individualistic impulses into socially beneficial channels.

(Of course, the transfer of training in social competence from the child's scholastic world to the adult's civic world would not be effectuated unless teachers *constantly* generalize the school situations created by a reorganized G. O. In other words, teachers must continually and ever again elicit and point out, in a spirit of constructive criticism, the similarities between the needs and structure of the school and the needs and structure of our democratic society.)

7. The type of G. O. outlined would be a step toward the solution of numerous disciplinary problems (especially if its democratic spirit and methods were also introduced into the various classrooms. The teacher-pupil relationship would be improved, because the pupil's individuality and wishes would find a new dignity, a new recognition, and new modes of constructive expression. There would be a reduction of the present confusion of disciplinary methods and standards which the child encounters as he passes from teacher to teacher, and which renders more difficult the attainment of a well-integrated character and personality (pretty much like the effect on the child of disharmonies and disagreements between his parents). Also, according to the findings of Drs. White, Lewin, and Lippitt, who experimented for two years at the Child Welfare Station of the University of Iowa, actual scholarship would improve under a regime of democratic self-government.

In brief, such a general organization as is here indicated, would help to infuse a new vitality into the democracy of our nation. It is absurd to rule children and expect them to learn to rule themselves democratically as it would be to do their homework for them and expect them to learn their subjects. If widely adopted and wisely guided, such a school general organization could help to produce a more valid, a more dynamic, and a less sluggish democracy . . . the most urgent need of menaced mankind in the twentieth century.

IRVING AMDUR.
Jr. H. S. 30, Manhattan.

INFORMAL DRAMATIZATIONS

In the pursuance of the reading aim for Modern Language work, sight must not be lost of the syllabus requirement of "training ear and tongue" for pronunciation and "speaking to express thought." Although this is not the *chief* aim it is none the less important. Much of the fun in learning a language is lost when too much of the work is conducted in English. Pupils find a great deal of pleasure in using the foreign language no matter how simple the phrases may be.

At a recent meeting of the American Association of Teachers of German (Junior Auxiliary), the topic of discussion was the *Value of Dramatizations in the Teaching of Foreign Languages.* There is certainly no doubt that great pleasure and value are to be derived; all were agreed upon this basic fact. However the writer has always questioned the value of formal playlets performed on the stage for auditorium entertainment. Only a very few pupils gain power in the foreign language through this exercise; the finished product must be smooth and therefore requires a great amount of time and effort; only upper termers usually take part. These facts raise one question: whether the finished stage play in foreign language is worth the energy it costs.

On the other hand, the simple selections given in some grammars for so called "conversation" practice are often so silly and stilted that the pupils have no interest in them. The constant repetition of the same exercise, while a valuable pronunciation drill, is deadening and may destroy the fun of speaking the foreign language.

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The writer has tried out a simple system of informal dramatizations that has been quite effective in class, even in Language I. All students may participate. At the suggestion of my colleagues, I am submitting an outline of the procedure.

In Language I, let us take a simple reader like Hagboldt's *Fabeln*. This book has been studied for intensive reading. It contains short fables, simple and easily adapted to dramatizations. The class is divided into groups having the same lunch period, so that pupils may have their rehearsals at that time. On the first day in class, the pupils separate into their various groups and select the story they wish to present. Each small group of two three or four pupils has

1. necessary characters for the play
2. announcer, director, or interlocutor.

They prepare in class the distribution of the parts. Let us take the story, *The Country Mouse and City Mouse*. The director assigns the parts. Naturally a brighter student takes a somewhat longer role. (We have never had any difficulty on this score.) The pupil is to memorize his lines for the next day. The play is read through now in rehearsal, the announcer reading the explanatory notes (i. e. the non-conversation part of the text) and the actors reading their lines. Pupils correct each other's pronunciation and make suggestions for actions. The director's part is to prepare the setting, explain the scene of action from sentences out of the text, and often explain the "properties." The board eraser is "ein Stück Käse" or the basket acts as "ein Netz." Pupils are not encouraged to make up original sentences for that may lead to disaster. The extent of originality is to say "Anna ist die Feldmaus" or "John ist die Stadtmaus" and then Anna repeats "Ich bin die Stadtmaus-ich bin dumm" or some short descriptive phrase from the book. The announcer goes on painting the scene. "Hier ist der Wald" and shows or writes the word on the board. At another point on the board he writes "die Küche." Some pupils have brought in printed signs. One girl had a small tablecloth with cut out paper letters "DAS WIRTSHAUS." No premium is placed upon properties. The pupils may make as little or as much fuss as they like. When the scene has been laid by the "director," the actors proceed with the conversations memorized from the text. They may add such sentences as "Ich bin erstaunt" where the text says "die Maus ist erstaunt." The pupils soon learn to what extent they may add to the conversations. Since this is prepared in class, the teacher has an opportunity of offering suggestions and preventing flights of fancy which would result in language errors. One group, I remember, would not let me help them. They wanted to "surprise the class." The next day they came in with a beautifully simple little dramatization, but instead of the animals of the fable they had supplied the names of leading international figures, and, sticking close to the fable, simply substituted Czecho-Slovakia for the lamb.

To summarize:

1. On the first day, parts are distributed; play is discussed and prepared in class.
2. Pupils memorize parts for homework and prepare properties.
3. Rehearsal takes place during lunch period.
4. Play is presented in class.

We have not over-emphasized the memorization. If pupils are nervous or self-conscious and wish to peep into the reader for help or moral support, they may do so. Often the feeling of security of just having the book in hand, makes it unnecessary to refer to it.

There is great profit to be derived from this sort of informal dramatization. It gives the pupils

1. an opportunity for accurate pronunciation without stilted drill
2. the chance to really act and speak in a foreign language
3. a sense of creation in writing additional lines
4. an intensive study of the particular story the group has chosen
5. a pleasant and comprehensive review of all the stories and vocabulary.

Needless to say, the pupils enjoy this enormously. The actors and audience have such a good time because the work is of their own creation and there is a feeling of spontaneity and fun. It is a favorite exercise with the pupils and teacher.

DOROTHY D. SILVER.
High School of Music and Art.

MIXED SOCIAL DANCING

Wednesday is social dance day at James Monroe High School. Half of the girls assigned to each period are sent to the boys' gymnasium and half the boys are sent to the girls' gymnasium. The man regularly assigned to each period teaches in the boys' gymnasium and the woman regularly assigned teaches in the girls' gymnasium. The assistant teacher of each period accompanies the boys or girls to the second gymnasium and stays throughout the period. Student pianists furnish the music.

The fundamental steps in social dancing are taught

1. Promenade
2. Step close
3. Waltz
4. Two-step
5. Balance step or swing balance along with combinations of these steps as described on Pages 110-111 in the New York State Bulletin 1045 Secondary Physical Education Syllabus—Girls.

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Part of the period is spent teaching a definite step or combination of steps. During the remainder of the period the pupils who know no other steps practice those taught that day. All other students dance as they wish. All must dance.

Special emphasis is placed on the social graces. Initial shyness is gradually being overcome and the program is considered worth while and successful.

VIOLA BROWN.
James Monroe High School.

THE MATH CLUB-STREAMLINED

During the past year, the Math Club at Manual Training High School has had as its primary objective, the enjoyment of Mathematics in interesting, novel and up to date situations. "Let's have some fun from Math" has been the aim of every meeting. That we have succeeded is attested by the fact that our club has grown in popularity to such an extent that each meeting is overcrowded with enthusiasts. In general, the following principles have guided us:

1. The program must appeal to the slow, average and bright Math students.

2. There must be a maximum amount of participation by the club members. Our club uses a point score system in which one to five points are awarded for individual contributions. At the end of the term, special prizes are given to the highest scorers.

3. Preliminary preparation for each meeting by a steering committee should stimulate wide spread interest and activity.

4. Modern sources of real life activities such as the radio, news events, popular games, modern books, and so forth are used as a guide for adapting our Math programs.

The programs which I will describe briefly have already been tried and received with interest and enthusiasm.

MATH INFORMATION PLEASE

As the title indicates, we used the regular *Information Please* radio program as our model. Before the regular meeting, the club members submitted many written questions of a mathematical nature and suitable for the program. Here are just a few samples of about 100 received.

1. What mathematical operation is performed by a dentist? (Extracting a root.)

2. State 5 mathematical terms that contain the names of persons e.g.—Dick in perpen*dic*ular.

An announcer and a board of experts were selected from the membership and the questions submitted were handled in a manner similar to the radio program. If a question was missed, a point score was awarded to the member submitting the question. Club members were called upon when the experts failed. The entire meeting was conducted with such enthusiasm, humor, and lively discussion that the club voted to have a continuation for the following week.

MATH SCAVENGER HUNT

The steering committee secured data of number and form, based on observations in the building, in halls, rooms, auditorium, library. Using this data, algebraic and geometric exercises were formulated. Club members also were urged to bring in such problems. The committee then made a graded selection of several of the best ones and mimeographed copies were run off. Some sample questions were:

1. Give the formula for the area of the figure formed by the wire in the glass of the door of the Prospect Room.

2. The sum of the ages of the men in the row boat in a picture by Rockwell Kent is equal to the number of pupils who got on the 1938 Mathematics Honor Roll. If one-tenth of one man's age is added to the number of exits from the balcony of the auditorium, the result is 3 more than the number of people in the painting of the World War Memorial. How old is each man in the row boat?

3. If I raise the number of names on the Honor Roll next to the Library to the power equal to the number of typewriters in Room 243 and add 1 to the result, I have the number of coins in my pocket. Without looking at these coins how many have I?

(It is interesting to note that the names totaled over 700 but there were no typewriters in Room 243.)

At the meeting, a question paper was given to each member and all scurried out to hunt for the required information in order to solve the problems. A 45 minute hunt was sufficient to produce a winner. Point scores were awarded to first, second and third places. Variations of this game in the form of a treasure hunt are being devised for the future use.

LOGICAL ANALYSIS

For this program, a committee gathered non-mathematical material from such sources as the newspaper, magazine articles, radio broadcasts, movies. The material was of such a nature that scientific and geometric analysis could easily be applied and the truth or falsity verified. The "Nature of Proof" discussed in Prof. Fawcett's book was used as a guide to analyze advertisements, propaganda, statements on war and peace, psycological puzzle problems, mysteries. Small committees of two or three members collaborated on a short presentation with objective illustrations and then acted as leaders of the discussion which ensued.

MATHEMATICS IN SCIENCE

Some radio scripts of the program *Science on the March* were obtained and a few members presented them as a radio broadcast. Other members prepared short talks

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on the mathematical aspects of the broadcast One script dealt with air pressure and many interesting problems were presented. The leading members of the Science Club of the school were invited to attend this meeting and they led a very spirited discussion.

Mathematical Guggenheim

This program is a variation of that popular parlor game called 20 questions or "guggenheim." A team of 10 members (called team A) present to the rest of the club (called team B) a question previously agreed upon: "We are thinking of a mathematical term. (one or two words only) What is it?" Team B then proceeds to pose algebraic or geometric questions which team A must answer correctly. For example:

Team B: Is it an equilateral parallelogram?

Team A: No it is not a rhombus.

Team B: Is it a figure each of whose interior angles is 120°.

Team A: No, it is not a hexagon.

Team A must answer each question correctly or receive a penalty. This penalty entitles Team B to a leading question to be answered by yes or no. e.g, "Is the term a plane figure?" Further penalties will give Team B clues for the correct term. Members of Team B soon realized the advantages of framing their questions in a rather difficult setting so that Team A would not find the answers too easily. When this game was actually played, Team A selected the word 'locus" and it was guessed in 15 minutes. Another Team A was formed and they selected the term Pi. This was guessed in 10 minutes.

Math Bingo

Five categories under which many mathematical terms may be included are selected, such as

1. Plane figures
2. Geometric lines
3. Math. relationships.
4. Terms used in Measurement.
5. Mathematicians or Physicists.

These are placed at the top of each column of a 25 square box. At the left of each of the 5 rows is placed one letter of a 5 letter word such as B-I-N-G-O. At the given signal, the members race to write in an appropriate term starting with the required letter and under the proper category. The pupil who fills in correctly any 5 in a row, horizontally, vertically or diagonally calls BINGO and wins a point score.

Other Programs

A variety of other programs already held or in the process of preparation include:

1. Mathematical and non-mathematical fallacies.
2. Topolunacies.
3. The Story of Number—Dramatized.
4. Professor Quiz—in Mathematics.
5. Mathematical Charades.
6. Lives of Famous Mathematicians. Dramatized in Living Newspaper style.
7. "Skitsophrenia" — short skits depicting math boners. Ingenious club members and faculty advisers can devise many other worth while programs of which the above are but a sample. I feel sure that with such stimulation the Math Club can become an outstanding extra-curricular activity for our pupils.

Max F. Weiss.

Manual Training High School.

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND NOTES

NEW SCIENTIFIC AIDS TO LEARNING ANNOUNCED BY OFFICE OF EDUCATION

Recordings of a significant network educational radio series—a development long awaited by teachers, educators and civil leaders—are now ready, Commissioner of Education John W. Studebaker announces.

First offering of the new service is a series of 24 transcriptions of the AMERICANS ALL—IMMIGRANTS ALL series, now having its premiere over 104 stations of the Columbia Broadcasting System.

Commissioner Studebaker said that he had decided to record this series because teachers and school officials are looking for aids of this type which they can use in adapting the school curriculum to strengthen democracy—a fast-growing movement in education.

Many New York City schools are planning to use recordings as part of the instructional program.

The New York City Board of Education recently authorized instruction to promote tolerance of racial and religious differences.

To Preserve Radio Talent

"Into the planning and creation of AMERICANS ALL — IMMIGRANTS ALL programs has gone the talent of some of our best leaders in education, writing, music and dramatics," Commissioner Studebaker said today. "The result has been a radio series which has inspired millions of listeners to clearer thinking on the problems of America's growth and feature.

"To preserve these values, the Office of Education now offers the schools and other educational centers of the Nation these 24 recordings."

Record "Most Spectacular Movement of Peoples"

Dramatizing the story of the

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most spectacular movement of humanity in all recorded time—the movement of millions of men, women and children from other lands to the land they made their own—the recordings should be valuable aids in the teaching of history, social studies, civil government, economics, industry, agriculture, art and geography. Educational and civic groups are utilizing the programs to enrich their meetings and educational work.

The recordings, in dramatized form, deal with the contributions to American growth of many peoples — English, Hispanic peoples, Scots, Irish and Welsh, French-speaking peoples, the Netherlnaders, Germans, Scandinavians, Japanese, Chinese, Jews, Slavs, Italians, Greeks, Armenians, Syrians, Portuguese, Hungarians, Latvians, Estonians and others.

Other subjects covered in this ultra-modern library are immigrant contributions in science, industry, arts and crafts, social progress. A New England Town (dramatizing interweaving of group life in an early Colonial America), An Industrial City (dramatizing the emergence of American culture in industrial cities), and Grand Finale.

To Promote Tolerance

Like books in a library these new implements of education offer a wide variety of uses, the Office of Education points out. They should aid in the development of the all-important qualities of tolerance toward and good will among all peoples. They may be used to further understanding of the contributions of various nationalities in constructing the basic foundations that undergird American democracy, and to foster new appreciations for working together.

The introduction of these new educational aids into the classroom is relatively easy and inexpensive. Special play-back equipment is necessary for the larger 16-inch recordings, but the 12-inch readings can be played on an ordinary phonograph. A Teachers' Manual and Student Guide which gives suggestions for class and out-of-class use is supplied free with each purchase of recordings. Intended for educational purposes only, the recordings are not available to commercial radio stations.

Heard over a coast-to-coast CBS network every Sunday from 2:00 to 2:30 p.m. EST, the AMERICANS ALL—IMMIGRANTS ALL series represents thousands of hours of research, checking, planning, writing of scripts and music, and production. The series has been created by the Office of Education, Department of the Interior, with the guidance of a distinguished committee and more than 40 leading radio actors, singers and musicians. The Service Bureau for Intercultural Education, New York City, and the Radio Division of the Office of Education compiled the facts for the series. Gilbert Seldes, noted author, writes the scripts. The following advisory committee guided the preparation of the series:

Louis Adamic, Author and Lecturer

Edith Terry Bremer, Director, National Institute of Immigrant Welfare

Dr. Esther Caulkin Brunauer, Chairman, Committee on International Relations

Dr. Everett Clinchy, Director, National Conference of Jews and Christians

Dr. Stephan Duggan, Director, Institute of International Education

Sterling Fisher, Director of Education and Talks, Columbia Broadcasting System

James L. Houghteling, Commissioner of Immigration and Naturalization Service

Read Lewis, Foreign Language Information Service, Inc.

Marvin Lowenthal, Author and Lecturer

James G. McDonald, Chairman, President's Advisory Committee on Political Refugees

Dr. Joy Elmer Morgan, Editor, Journal of the National Education Association

Dr Carson Ryan, President, Progressive Education Association

Dr. James T. Shotwell, Director, Division of Intercourse and Education, Carnegie Endowment for International Peace

Avenire Toigo, Executive Secretary, Committee on Citizenship and Naturalization

In addition each script is revised by:

James L. Houghteling, Commissioner of Immigration and Naturalization Service

Clifford I. Lord, Instructor, Department of History, Columbia University

Dr. Herbert Wright, Head, Department of Government Catholic University.

The recordings are made available, according to Commissioner Studebaker, by special arrangement with the Columbia Broadcasting System, the Committee on Scientific Aids to Learning, the American Federation of Musicians, and the Music Authors and Publishers Protective Association. "For this development," Dr. Studebaker says, "we have to thank these forward-looking organizations and also those teachers and school administrators who are pioneering with these new gifts of science to education. The day is not far away when transcriptions of this kind will be as much a part of the school as textbooks."

A leaflet giving complete information on recording is available from the Educational Radio Script Exchange of the Office of Education, Department of the Interior, Washington, D. C.

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BOOK NOTES

(Mention under this head does not preclude review elsewhere)

TEACHING COMPOSITION AND LITERATURE. *By Lucia B. Mirrielees.* Harcourt, Brace.

A revised and enlarged edition of the original text published in 1931, under the title *Teaching Composition in the High School.*

Few texts in methodology in this field can surpass this one. It is sensible, practical, hard-headed, critical, and highly usable. Educational metaphysics are reduced to barest minimum. The emphasis throughout on creating the atmosphere and devising techniques for making literature and composition come to life in the classroom. Written with a vivid awareness of the actual human and administrative problems involved in the teaching of literature, there is nothing remote, professorial, or ivory-towerish about this treatment. If it doesn't solve all our problems, it certainly stimulates constructive, intelligent thinking about things that concern every teacher of English.

The appendix and bibliography are particularly full and helpful.

A SURVEY OF COURSES OF STUDY AND OTHER CURRICULUM MATERIALS PUBLISHED SINCE 1934. *By Bernice E. Leary.* United States Department of Interior, Office of Education.

A detailed analysis of curricular materials, aimed at discovering whether educators know what they are doing, or where they are going, whether they have any well-grounded principles of procedure, whether they construct courses of study *in vacuo* or with some conception of the human and social elements involved. Very distressing reading, indeed. Archaeological remains of other ages are still alive and kicking lustily. What seems of only cursory historical interest to the writers of our new textbooks appears to have an amazingly ubiquitous vitality. There is certainly precious little ringing in of the new to be observed in these representative courses of study. Some localities betray a creditable consciousness of the demands of our new age, and honestly attempt to work out a respectable *modus vivendi.* An appallingly large section of American education, however, is still stuck fast in a primordial slime. If these reports from the trenches are to be believed, then the battle for the true and the right seems hardly begun. We suggest a look into this volume. It's not exactly encouraging, but it is a realistic facing of the facts. And this we need now more than lush vaticinations and heated wishful thinking of our so-called "frontier" minds.

THE 1938 MENTAL MEASUREMENTS YEARBOOK. *Edited by Oscar K. Buros.* Rutgers University Press, $3.00.

The publication of this volume is an occasion to celebrate. For the first time, it gives the users of educational tests access to an enormous number of critical appraisals of the tests now literally inundating the profession. Drawn from every conceivable source, these considered opinions enunciated without fear or equivocation supply what has long been needed: honest and detailed professional evaluation of the available measuring devices each of which, if we are to believe the publishers, is the open sesame to some phase or other of the human psyche. For those who would make intelligent use of the available tests, this volume is indispensable. It offers authoritative and unbiased guidance in place of the cloudy rhetoric and chimerical claims of special interests, addled testers, monomaniacal experts, and canny publishers riding high, wide, and not too handsome on the crest of a popular and professional hysteria.

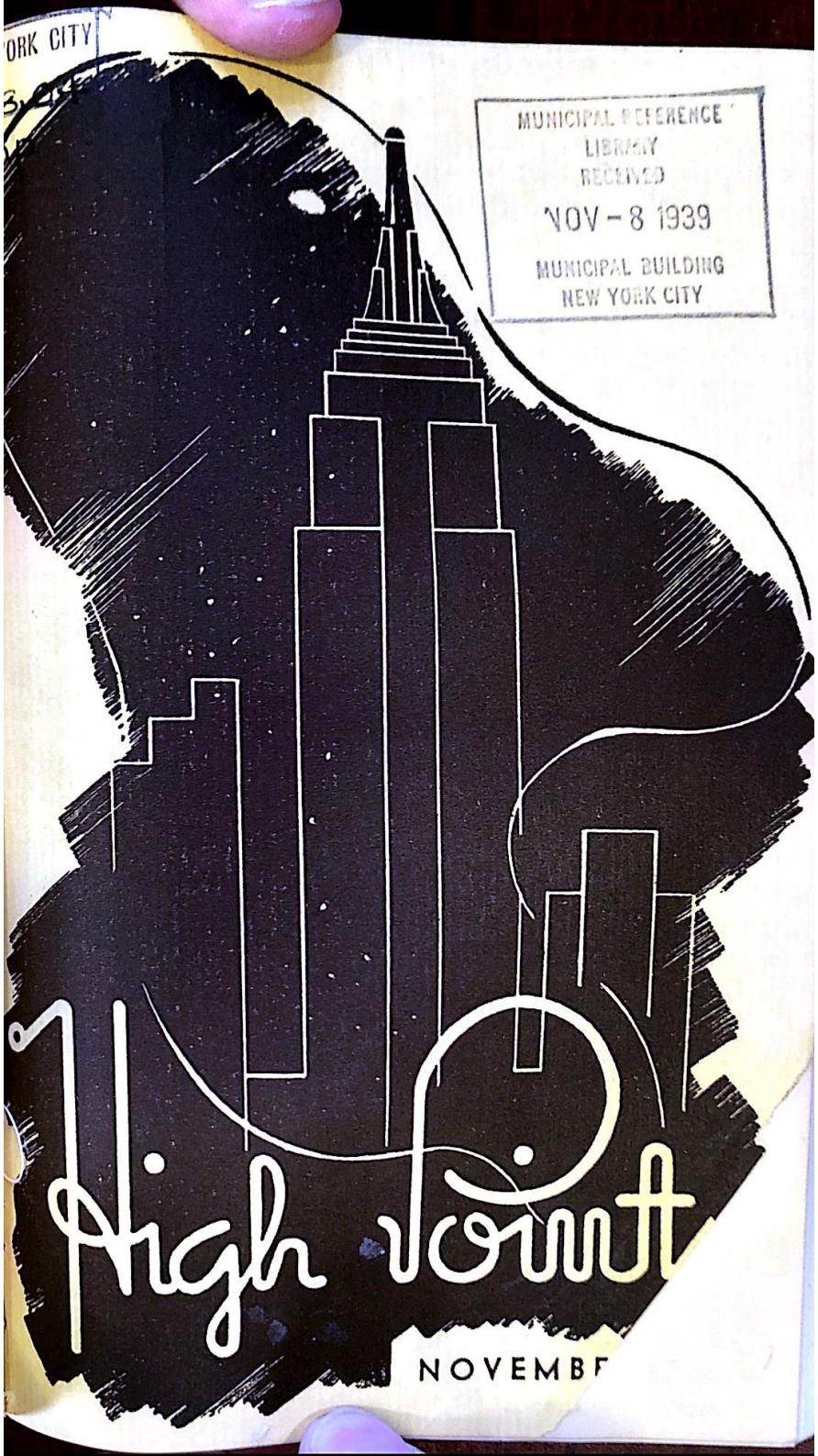
There are additional sections dealing with books on statistics and research methodology, and review excerpts from over 185 journals.

The profession must be deeply indebted to Dr. Buros and his indefatigable colleagues, and to all the experts whose contributions make this volume so uniquely valuable.

A. H. LASS.

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SUGGESTED STANDARDS IN THE SUPERVISION OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

One of the basic principles in effective supervision is the mutual acceptance by teacher and supervisor of definite standards. Complete agreement on the immediate and ultimate aims of the instruction and the best ways of attaining them is highly desirable. Without such agreement, teacher and supervisor are likely to work at cross-purposes.

The Syllabus of Minima has set the primary objective for us. "The *chief* aim shall be to develop to the point of enjoyment the ability to real the foreign language." "This aim stresses ability to grasp readily thought expressed in the foreign language in writing or in speech. It includes the attainment of a reasonably fluent and accurate pronunciation and of an introductory knowledge of the foreign country and its people." 'The aim is to lead the pupil into a world of new experiences and from the very beginning to develop in him a sense of pleasurable achievement."

The development of the ability to read, then, is the immediate aim; the cultivation of an appreciation of the foreign civilization is the ultimate aim.

The methods employed in achieving these aims will vary with the type of lesson taught. Each lesson, however, no matter what its character is, will demand the observance of certain principles and practices, if it is to be an effective learning situation.

Below is presented a set of sstandards which can be applied to any lesson in foreign languages as a means of measuring its effectiveness. Not every lesson will call for all of the items listed, but it will involve the basic principles underlying the items. The intelligent teacher will readily make the neccessary adjustments to every situation.

1. PHYSICAL CONDITIONS

   1. *The room*

      a. Adequate light and ventilation.
      b. Floor free from paper and refuse.
      c. Cleanliness and tidiness predominant.
      d. Desks free from markings.

Distinctly undesirable:

      a. Papers on floor
      b. Notices, clippings and charts torn or hanging from one tack.

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c. Pupils' desks covered with inscriptions, frequently obscene.

2. *Blackboards*

a. The blackboard should be free from the exercises of previous classes.

b. All written work on the board, whether done by the teacher or pupils, should be neat, legible, accurate, and logically arranged.

c. All exercises written by the pupils should have a brief heading, preferably in the foreign language. It may include "My name is..... and the date."

Distinctly undesirable:

a. Scattered, poorly-arranged and slovenly written material by teacher or pupils.

b. The filling of board by poorly prepared pupils with many wrong forms.

c. The failure to number sentences. This makes it difficult to refer to them.

3. *Illustrative material*

a. Carefully selected illustrative material should be put on display in every foreign language classroom whether it is used exclusively by the foreign language teacher or not. This will consist of posters, pictures, photographs, pupils' drawings, lettered proverbs and travel folders. The material should be selected on the basis of its attractiveness, its representativeness of the foreign culture and its usefulness in instruction.

b. Every foreign language room should contain a good map of the foreign country. If a map is not available, the teacher can draw one on oak tag or on the blackboard.

c. Every foreign language classroom should contain a bulletin board for the display of news items and pictures of current interest from newspapers and magazines. The display should be changed frequently.

d. To the above may be added a display of suitable realia, such as a calendar, dolls in foreign costume, carvings and models made by the pupils, etc. These, however, are not absolutely necessary.

e. Pictures and other illustrative material should be neatly labeled.

Distinctly undesirable features:

a. A classroom bare of decorations.

b. A classroom cluttered up with useless, ill-chosen, inadequate or soiled material. Antiquated material (such as scenes of Paris in 1900) displayed as representative of the foreign country.

II. The Lesson

1. *Definiteness of aim and procedure.*

a. Every lesson should be a planned lesson. The plan need not always be written but certainly ought to be thought out. It should include the scope, the aim, the mode of presentation, the nature of the classroom activities, exactly what words and other subject-matter are to be learned, and adequate means for assuring the attainment of the objective sought.

b. An important feature of the plan is the proper allotment of time to the various activities. The lesson should be so arranged that it can be taught within the period without undue haste.

2. *Motivation*

Every lesson should be properly motivated so that the interest of the pupils is aroused and so that they feel the need for all that follows. Each step and each exercise should be accompanied by a brief explanatory comment. The child should be shown the reason for what he is expected to do.

3. *Economy in Procedure*

a. The distribution of books and materials, going to the board, collecting homework, and so forth, should be routinized so that as little time as possible is lost.

b. Economy in routine demands uniformity. This is particularly true of rising when reciting, going to the front of the front room to give an oral report, and so forth. Pupils should know what is expected of them.

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c. *Frequently something can be taught in a number of different ways. That exercise or procedure should be chosen which best suits the pupils, the subject and the occasion.*

d. The use of mimeographed sheets is far more economical than copying from the board.

e. Other activities should be carried on by pupils at their seats while board work is being done.

f. Conducive to good classroom management is well organized monitorial assistance.

4. *Questioning*

Special care should be given the questioning since it constitutes so large a part of the average lesson. A few basic principles are:

a. Questions should be put to the class.

b. Time should be allowed for thinking.

c. Individuals should be called upon by name.

d. Questions should be so distributed that all pupils have an opportunity to recite.

e. Normally, the teacher should avoid mechanically repeating the pupil's answers. If the teacher does repeat, it should be done to stress pronunciation.

f. As a rule, although not always, answers in complete sentences should be required.

g. Questions should be clearly formulated.

h. Answers may frequently be written on the board.

i. The "yes" and "no" type of question should not be predominant.

j. Whenever possible questions should be sequential and developmental.

5. *Methods and devices employed*

The teacher should aim to make the lesson interesting and effective by the use of a variety of modern methods and exercises. The procedures employed can be tested by asking one's self:

a. Are they modern or antiquated?

b. Are they economical?

c. Are they interesting and stimulating?

d. Do they make a multiple-sense appeal?

e. Do they make for self-activity?

f. Are they adequate?

g. Has sufficient practice been given?

h. Has there been a good balance between concert and individual recitation? (Concert recitation has specific advantages in the foreign language class.)

6. *Human elements*

a. Motivation, continual and subtle, must lubricate the gears of the lesson.

b. Interest, genuine and sincere, in what is being done should prevail on the part of the teacher as well as the pupils.

c. Personal elements should enter into the questions and exercises and give them warmth. An absolutely objective attitude makes for coldness.

d. Humor and pleasantry should be a feature of the lesson. It should, of course, be kept on a high level and not turn into the familiarity that breeds contempt.

7. *Individualization of Instruction*

a. The difficulty and scope of the question should be adjusted to the intelligence and character of the pupil.

b. Special talents (drawing, singing, ability to play an instrument) should be utilized by the teacher whenever the occasion arises.

c. The native pupil should be used for reading aloud, correcting oral work, dictating, giving summaries in the foreign language.

d. Remedial instruction should be given the weaker pupil or the one who has fallen behind.

e. Homework assignments should frequently be differentiated at three levels to provide for the slow, the average, the superior.

8. *Summarizing and Testing*

a. Before the close of the period, the teacher should have the main points summarized briefly, either in writing or orally.

b. A few minutes of testing, either oral or written, should reveal whether the aims of the lesson have been achieved.

c. The written test can be given at the beginning of the next period.

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9. *New Assignment*
   a. Modern procedure demands that the homework assignments be given at the beginning of the period, or that it arise out of the day's lesson.
   b. The teacher should make certain that every pupil knows what is to be done.
   c. The assignment should be motivated, should be of reasonable length and should not involve unusual difficulties. Sufficient explanation should be given to enable the average student to prepare successfully.
   d. The superior teacher will differentiate the assignment for bright and slow pupils.

10. *Creating Life Situations*
   a. As far as possible, the foreign tongue should be the language of the classroom except for explaining grammatical concepts. It should be employed for all routine classroom commands and brief comments even in beginners' classes. In advanced classes it should be used almost exclusively.
   b. The pupil should not only participate in the lesson but play a definite role. The teacher is to be the director, the stage-manager, the prompter, the guide and helper,—not the doer.
   c. The versimilitude of the situation will be enhanced by the teacher's freedom from the textbook. Lively, improvised, spontaneous exercises are often preferable to the sentences given in the book. The latter should be guide and a help to teacher and pupil, and not a task-master.
   d. Cultural references in the text should be exploited. The extent to which this is done will depend upon the nature of the reference and the time available. Whereas a brief comment or word of explanation will suffice in some cases, in others, more detailed treatment should be given.

Distinctly undesirable features

   a. A lesson lacking definite objectives.
   b. Absence of explanatory comments before each exercise.
   c. Waste of time in procedure.
   d. Ill-chosen, poorly formulated, hasty or injudicious questions.
   e. A cold, objective attitude on the part of the teacher.
   f. Lack of assistance to the weak and faltering.
   g. Absence of procedures to determine whether the objectives have been attained.
   h. Ill-chosen homework assignments, hastily given and without comment.
   i. The infrequent use of the foreign language in the classroom.
   j. The teacher's clinging closely to the textbook.
   k. The disregard of cultural references occurring in the text.
   l. The absence of life situations and personal elements from the lesson.

III. The Pupils

1. *Attentiveness*

The pupils should maintain an attitude of interesst and attention throughout the period.

2. *Participation*
   a. As far as possible, the participation of every pupil in the room should be enlisted, each one being enlisted according to his abilities.
   b. The pupils should bear the burden of the work. The teacher is to initiate, stimulate, guide, correct, and criticize the activities.
   c. The participation, however, should be natural and spontaneous, and not forced.

3. *Posture and Behavior*
   a. Correct posture in sitting, standing, reciting and walking should be required of the pupils.
   b. Courtesy toward the teacher and toward fellow-pupils should prevail.
   c. An attitude of consideration and mutual helpfulness should be maintained.

4. *English and voice*
   a. Correct, smooth and precise English should be required of the pupils.
   b. A clear and pleasant voice quality should be

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encouraged on the pupils' part.

5. *Classroom standards*

a. Neatness in board and all written work should be taken for granted.
b. Reciting, going to the board, addressing the class, distributing material should be so routinized that every pupil knows what is expected.

Distinctly undesirable features

a. Inattentiveness and lack of interest.
b. Disorder, whispering, talking out.
c. Lack of participation.
d. Bad posture, seated and standing.
e. A lack of courtesy and consideration.
f. Too soft or too loud a voice.
g. Poor English.
h. Slovenly boardwork.
i. Absence of routine.
j. A disproportionate ratio of pupil-teacher activity.

V. THE TEACHER

1. *Appearance*

a. The teacher's attire should be neat, dignified, and in consonance with his age and position.
b. The teacher should set a good example to the class in posture and carriage.
c. As a guide and a leader the teacher should endeavor to present a radiant, vital, stimulating personality to the class.

2. *Manner*

a. The teacher's attitude should be courteous, friendly, cheerful and helpful.
b. The teacher should set a good example to the class in such traits as patience, generosity, broadmindedness and humor.
c. The teacher should exemplify the ideals of scholarliness, tolerance, and fairness.
d. The teacher should endeavor to maintain a spirit of good-fellowship with the pupils, without, however, descending to undue familiarity or cheap humor.

3. *Voice and English*

a. The teacher's voice should be clear, of sufficient volume, and of pleasant tone.
b. Excessive talking should be avoided.
c. The teacher's English should be correct, precise, well-chosen and pleasing. It should set a model to the class.
d. The same holds true of the foreign language.

4. *Professional attitude*

a. The alert teacher will belong to at least one language association.
b. The alert teacher will read and contribute to professional literature.
c. The alert teacher will welcome visitors to the classroom, and will be eager for constructive supervision and criticism.
d. The alert teacher will look upon teaching as one of the most important vocations and education as the most significant contribution to our social life. The daily lesson will be a thrilling experience, a happy contact with developing young minds and spirits.

Distinctly undesirable features

a. Slovenly, gaudy, inappropriate attire on the teacher's part. Lack of neatness and personal cleanliness.
b. The display of indifference, discourtesy, impatience, unfriendliness, or surliness toward the pupil.
c. A lack of scholarliness or genuine interest in the subject matter.
d. The endeavor to be popular by indulgence in undue familiarity and cheap humor.
e. The use of poor, incorrect, unrefined English. The use of slang.
f. A shrieking, clouded, monotonous, or indistinct voice. Keeping the voice so low that pupils in the rear of the room cannot hear properly.
g. Poor posture. Keeping hands in pockets. Leaning over or sitting continually at desk. Sitting on pupil's desk.
h. Indifference to professional language associations and their meetings.

In presenting the above standards I wish to express my indebted-

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ness, to Dr. Hymen Alpern, Dr. Albert Happel, Miss Renee Jeanne Fulton, Mrs. Edith Staver, Mrs. Sarah W. Lorge for their helpful criticism.

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THE PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION UNDERLYING THE WORK OF THE STRAUBENMÜLLER TEXTILE HIGH SCHOOL

The Straubenmüller Textile High School in the fall of 1939 is celebrating its 20th anniversary. The school has grown from an institution of three teachers and 84 students to one with a staff of nearly 300 teachers and approximately 8,000 students in the day and 80 teachers and 5,000 students in the evening.

Since the school was a pioneer in technical and vocational education, it may be worthwhile to reflect on its growth and see the philosophy of education underlying its development—a philosophy which, naturally, dominates the methods of teaching, subject matter, and the general conduct of the school. This philosophy has been evolved from certain principles of education—the same principles that underly the planning of the courses of study and the administrative policy of the school in general. Following is an enumeration of these principles together with a brief description of the school as a whole.

I. The Straubenmüller Textile High School is a monotechnical high school, meeting the educational needs of the city's leading industry—textiles—in all its phases: manufacturing, maintenance, distribution, designing, and scientific branches, such as testing of textiles. Heretofore, most technical schools have considered only the manufacturing and scientific phases of industry — calling themselves polytechnical schools—and have ignored the great field of distribution. The success of any industry depends upon the development in the highest degree of each phase of that industry, not only manufacturing but also distribution and designing. The United States Government has recently given support to this kind of technical and vocational education by providing financial aid to communities that have courses which emphasize the field of distribution in the educational system. The following courses are therefore offered in the Straubenmüller Textile High School to meet all the educational needs of the textile industry:

(a) *Marketing* with electives in (1) buying and selling; (2) secretarial practice and accountancy.

(b) *Manufacturing* including power maintenance with electives in (1) operating textile machinery; (2) electricity; (3) machine and metal work; (4) drafting.

(c) *Designing* of both structural and surface forms including electives in (1) costume illustration; (2) draping dress and millinery design; (3) advertising and photographic design.

(d) *Applied Science* with electives in (1) experimental dyeing; (2) color; (3) physical chemistry and biological testing of both quantitative and qualitative forms.

(e) *Academic Textile Course* meeting requirements for those who wish to go to higher technical institutions.

(f) *Coöperative Course* designed for those who wish to work and go to school — alternate weeks.

This variety of courses is based upon the educational principle that the school curriculum should be broad enough to include every fundamental form of human talent—mechanical, scientific, and artistic—which the textile industry can use in its varied branches. These different courses, with electives, encourage the various types of mind; cause them to become intensely interested in the work. In consequence, the students grow in power and self-confidence while attending school. This variety also allows for frequent vocational adjustments in the same school and, by providing a fresh beginning for those who have failed, encourages the students to stay in school, thus eliminating the tragic sense of failure which many students have when they drop out of school and enter business or industry.

II. Provision is made for part-time employment for students over sixteen years of age who can not profit by a full-time schooling. Over 700 students are enrolled in the Cooperative Course. These students, after they reach sixteen, are employed alternate weeks in the industry, particularly in the retail dry-goods stores. This is a feature of the school program which we feel should be developed more extensively in both part-time and regular apprentice training courses.

This system of education is based upon certain principles that make it effective:

(1) The economics of production, particularly as concerns the workman's time as a factor in the cost of production, is difficult to demonstrate to a student in a school where he

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receives no wages which, naturally, would depend upon his productive ability.

(2) The economic principles that apply to a commercial project can be understood to best advantage by a student when he sees a product put to commercial use and receives an incentive in the form of wages for his judgment and skill in producing the product. Many a student who has not been able to maintain himself in a full-time school has been aroused in a part-time scheme of education after he has seen the need for schooling — a need of which he had previously been unaware. A sense of responsibility has been aroused in him which has provoked thinking about and realizing the need for more information and training underlying his daily work. The part-time, or coöperative course, has prolonged the period of schooling and intellectual growth as well as strengthened the desire for knowledge and skill.

In addition, evening classes are offered to those already employed in the trade. These classes are arranged in small units, each unit meeting a definite business, industrial, or artistic educational demand.

III. (a) The courses in the day school are arranged to give a broad general, technical, and vocational training adapted to the interests and ability of the individual student, preparing him for employment in business, industry, or art. The evening school sessions, on the other hand, offer specific training in both technical and vocational education for those already employed in the trade and desirous of increasing their efficiency in a given occupation in order to prepare for higher positions in the same field.

(b) This difference in the courses of the day sessions and the evening sessions is due to the difference in the two student bodies. The student in the evening school is older than the student in the day school; he is already employed in a definite occupation — and knows definitely what he wants. The day school student, on the other hand, has not yet "found himself"; even if he has found himself he does not know the exact occupation he may find available. Therefore, he should have a fundamental training for many occupations that may be open to him on completion of his high school career. At the same time, he should be allowed to "sample" various kinds of school work that form the basis of industry, business, and art.

(c) Then again, the student in the day school is immature and his immaturity prevents him from developing the high degree of skill and sense of responsibility which the older evening school student can attain.

(d) Another advantage of *general* technical and vocational education over *specific* technical and vocational education is that the general type offers an excellent opportunity to prolong the education of the student. The hand and the shop work are the media through which the general education subjects—as by-products—are taught. Each technical or vocational operation is based upon one or more principles of science, mathematics, or other general high school subjects. To illustrate: If, in teaching the operations of a blast furnace, the ore is found to be siliceous, or acid, in character due to the presence of silica, or sand, it—the ore—must be mixed with a basic material, limestone (flux) which will combine with the acid, forming a salt (slag). This operation illustrates, as a by-product in general education, the principle of chemistry that neutralization of an acid is accomplished by adding a base to form a salt.

IV. (a) Since the principal objective in the Textile High School is training in economic efficiency in some phase of the textile industry, it follows that the methods of teaching and the subjects taught should emphasize very strongly this aim so that the students will develop a mental versatility for practical application of the subject matter taught them. In other words, objective teaching, laboratory methods, and shop, business, and studio technique should be the points of contact with the student's mind, whereas in general courses, contact is made more often through the mere stating of principles.

(b) The attitude of mind that leads to application, use, and practice, must be developed more efficiently in technical and vocational education than in general education. This distinction has always existed from the beginning of history. This is illustrated in the teaching of the apprentices by the guilds wherein the learner, or apprentice, was taught by actual participation in trade or commercial work, principally through the instincts of imitation and suggestion, followed by the information necessary for doing the work intelligently.

(c) Comenius, the educational reformer of the 17th century, reminds school teachers that "Artisans do not detain their apprentices with theories, but set them to doing actual work at an early stage. Thus, they learn to forge by forging, to carve by carving, to paint by painting, etc. Mechanics do not begin by drumming rules into their apprentices. They take them into the workshop and, in order to arouse their interest and sense of achievement, bid them look at the work that has been produced. Then when the apprentices display an interest in imitating the work, tools are placed in their hands and the apprentices are shown how the tools

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are held and used. Then, if the apprentices make mistakes, they are given advice and are corrected—more often by example than by mere words. Facts show that novices easily succeed under this type of instruction."

(d) Similarly Obadiah Smith in his work, "On Education," says, "In manual arts the teacher first showeth his apprentice what he is to do. Next, makes it himself in the presence of the apprentice, gives him short instructions, and then sets him to work."

(e) Notice that the guild master and master craftsman taught and arranged the trade skill and information in a manner very different from the logical order followed by the teacher of pure arts and sciences. They taught, first, practice, then thinking about the practice. The practice, if commercial work, was done under commercial conditions. The related mechanical knowledge of the trade, or practice —that is, the drawing, mathematics, science, etc., underlying the trade practice, was taught in connection with the practical work as occasion demanded — which is the psychological order and spiral arrangement.

(f) In general education there has been a tendency on the part of the "school masters" to follow the traditional courses of study and methods as they have been developed by the scholars, while the guilds, using the apprentice system, developed vocational and technical education methods through practice and use. This difference is due to the attitude of the teachers and scholars of former times who were students of philosophy and logic and who developed to a marked degree the power of abstract analysis. All the experiences of life were subjected to careful analysis by profound scholars and teachers, and the content was separated into fundamental principles. Then these principles were arranged in progressive order and studied — in most cases according to the unit system of arrangement and the logical method of teaching which have been devised from centuries of research by scholars. In making these analyses the great points of application and use were not emphasized so much as they were under the apprentice system of training and, therefore, they failed to arouse practical interest.

(g) Out of the years of traditional teaching experience there were evolved certain standards and methods of teaching that were adapted to the scholastic type of mind without reference to industry and commerce. These standards have been termed *academic* and they form a very effective system of education which has stood the test of time with reference to efficiency for those who can profit by such a system. This system however has failed to arouse many students of high school age who have been successfully trained under the apprentice system of education.

(h) The foundation stone of the instruction in the Textile High School is practice and use, which are emphasized in every lesson, and are made to appear important in a natural and vital way. The objective method of teaching appeals to the intensely practical mind of the students who are destined for business, industry, and art. One of the mistaken ideas of high school teachers of general education is that all students have the power of abstract intelligence and can learn from the printed page alone. Many students lack this power but have other mental qualities that are useful in industry, business, and art: manipulative skill, coördination of eye and hand, sense power, and the ability to grasp knowledge when presented in the concrete through illustrative material and observational experience.

(i) We have always had in the world various types of beings ranging from the scholarly, or book-minded type, to those who dislike the study of books and are inclined to be slow-minded in grasping abstract knowledge or information from the printed page but who, nevertheless, have much interest in doing concrete and practical things and display more or less mechanical ability in varying degrees of skill.

(j) Between these two limits of human interests and talents there have been many shades of difference that have been utilized by industry, commerce, and art. Nature, in her distribution of human talents, has always provided more motor-minded than abstract minded people. In fact, the great mass of people are inclined to be more motor- than abstract-minded. The great bulk of the world's work in business and in industry has been done by the talent furnished by this motor-minded class. They possess, in addition to great physical powers, much imitative skill, varying degrees of coördination of eye and hand, and other aptitudes which have given skill to mechanical work in a remarkable degree.

(k) Up to a generation ago, the great mass of motor-minded people were educated in the common schools where they received the simple elements of learning—reading, writing, and arithmetic—supplemented by an intensely practical education in habits of work—work at home, on the farm, in business and in the trades—under a more or less efficient apprenticeship. But, today, because of change in industrial and social conditions, these students are compelled to go to high school where they are not able to profit by the traditional courses of study—even when the courses are modified or "diluted." This type of student, due to his limited ability, requires an entirely

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different approach to the subject matter, i.e., that used under the apprentice system.

(l) The slow student who has a sluggish mind, lacks the power of abstract thinking, and can do only one step of reasoning at a time. This means he is capable of answering only simple questions requiring simple declarative answers. His strongest power is that of imitation through his motor activities —work with his hands. He is very sensitive, easily discouraged, and must be constantly supervised. However, we must bear in mind that these students are members of society and must be trained for some kind of useful and productive work. Therefore, the Textile High School aims to encourage manufacturers to have an organization that reduces overhead by specialization and utilization of semi-skilled and unskilled labor.

(m) Industry, business, and art can, and have utilized all types of mentality in different levels of intelligence and skill. To illustrate: In the wood-working trade there are employed:

(1) first class mechanics — cabinet makers.

(2) second class mechanics—house carpenters.

(3) third class mechanics — rough wood work; making cement forms, and so forth.

(4) fourth class mechanics—service men or helpers of high grade mechanics — carrying lumber, looking after tools.

(n) If we make an analysis of a successful, technically trained person, we find he has the following personal equipment:

(1) character and standard of ethics.

(2) physical development and personality.

(3) general intelligence.

(4) technical intelligence.

(5) manipulative skill.

(o) General intelligence is developed by subjects that teach the use of the mother tongue, history of the world, and an appreciation of the arts and sciences, while technical intelligence is developed through the study of mathematics, sciences, arts, and economics underlying the skill of the worker. General education emphasizes the first three qualities while vocational and technical education lay emphasis on the last two. Vocational education emphasizes skill and devotes fifty per cent of the total school time to developing manipulative skill, while technical education emphasizes related technical work and devotes twenty-five per cent of the total school time to manipulative skill.

(p) While it is true that everyone has the same fundamental items of personal equipment (mentioned in paragraph (n)), the items differ more or less in intensity, which accounts for the difference from leadership and highly skilled mechanics to the unskilled worker. The leader has more personality and more general and technical intelligence than the high grade mechanic whose strong points are technical intelligence and skill. Every high school student has these qualities in varying degrees of intensity on which the school through its course of study attempts to prepare him for life.

(q) At Straubenmüller Textile High School we believe that technical and vocational subjects are fundamental for this type of school. Nevertheless, regardless of their importance, they are not sufficient for complete living. The time spent while attending high school is the period of adolescence—a period in which the play instincts, team spirit, and ideals which shape character and future life are developed. As the Bible states, "Man can not live by bread alone." Life is incomplete without the refining influences, such as music and art, as well as athletic games, hobbies, and clubs which the school emphasizes very strongly in organized and unorganized activities. Vocal and orchestral music are taught. The school has an orchestra of one hundred students provided with various instruments valued at over $4,000. The school auditorium, library, music rooms, class rooms, and corridors are decorated with illustrations, paintings, murals, and stained glass windows which have a refining and inspiring influence which brings out the best in the character and emotions of the students. The school also has a strong physical training department for the physical and personal development and athletic interests of individuals and teams.

V. The primary aim of the day Textile High School has been to maintain a high standard of textile education. This standard has been maintained through a proper selection of students and by special Regents' examinations. Both city and Regents' diplomas are granted. This type of instruction has been carried on in the Main Building, located at 351 West 18th Street.

VI. Many of the students of the school, however, are not able to meet the Regents' standards. Provisions are made in the annexes for modified changes in the course of study to meet the individual educational needs of these non-academic students. Three distinct courses, with electives, are offered:

(a) Industrial course — for those mechanically inclined.

(b) Art and design—for those artistically inclined.

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(c) Business course—for those inclined to the field of business. Under each course there are allowed sufficient electives to make the school work flexible. The content of each subject is taught by the spiral rather than by the unit system of instruction. Hence, the work is flexible and readily adaptable to the ability of the students, some of whom have the power of simple reasoning only, applied to simple applications of the principles underlying the subject matter taught.

The success of these special classes in technical and vocational education in the annexes is based upon the following educational principles:

(1) While the abstract intellectual ability, or power, as expressed by the I.Q., is a safe index of efficiency in training for leaders and high grade workers where vision, power of analysis, and sense of responsibility are essential, it is not a very reliable index for those in the lower levels of work, such as the semi-skilled, unskilled, and service occupations. The assumption of the "school master" that unless the student has power to assimilate knowledge from the printed page alone and do complex reasoning he is not competent to do menial and unskilled work under supervision, is not substantiated by actual experience. The school masters have ignored the fact that these students have potential power that can be developed through concrete coördination of the senses and emotions—physical development and personality.

(2) Much time is devoted to health education for, while these slow students may lack abstract intellectual power, their physical side as well as their emotions may be developed by games which require coördination of hand and eye as well as thinking and reasoning about the movements and plays. In addition, health education develops personality, the ability to get along with others and work in coöperation (team work)—all of which are essential elements in business, industry, and art in all phases. Success on the physical side tends to stimulate general school work and gives encouragement to the slow minded student—removes his feelings of not being "smart."

(3) The Textile High School has been singularly successful in convincing manufacturers and other experts that students of low I.Q., while lacking in abstract intellectual power to a marked degree, have many other powers that can be utilized to advantage in industry, business, and art. Until recently, one of the large drygoods stores secured all of its help on the basis of personality and high I.Q. During a long conference with the manager and personnel director, it was suggested that these boys with low I.Q.—the slow minded boys—if of good character, could serve the firm better in the long run—in a menial capacity—than the boys with high I.Q.'s who are apt to be very ambitious. The slow type of boy will be content to perform the routine chores—happy in his work—and will remain probably for a life time in one position. On the other hand, the bright ambitious boy will be constantly on the alert for promotion with resultant upsets—replacements—in the organization. From an economic standpoint, it is felt that it is the better policy on the part of a firm to employ in the menial positions the type of boy who will be satisfied with his lot. Although this manager and personnel director hesitated at first to change their policy in selecting their employees, they did change their minds and later engaged sixty boys of low I.Q. from the Textile High School, paying them $16 a week. While these boys may never get more than $27 a week, they are reasonably sure of permanent positions paying from $16 to $27. The school hopes to do more along this line to convince manufacturers that business, industry, and art, in their various phases, can utilize satisfactorily the non-academic type of student, though it is necessary to have such employees highly supervised.

(4) Vocational guidance is developed very effectively in the school, particularly with the slow-minded students in the annexes and analyses are made of each student's talents. The students are then distributed to the proper courses, each within the grade of his ability. This means less stress on failing students and more attention to their readjustment by a proper system of education through vocational guidance and direction. Such a system of guidance means the student is "guided" to the particular course of training for the kind of occupation in which his individual ability will count for the most in actual achievement. The students are adjusted to the different courses, happiness is stressed, and an honest attempt is made to inspire each one to do his best while in school in preparation for his life work. The administration of the school is sufficiently flexible to allow for this type of work and the teachers are sympathetic—each with a personality that wins the respect of the students. The students in the annexes receive certificates instead of diplomas on completion of the four-year course.

In closing, it may be stated that Straubenmüller Textile High School, in the interest of democracy and other social forces, attempts to train students of secondary grade of various levels of intelligence by proper classification, and has done this work successfully for twenty years. The subject matter and the methods used in the school not only train the student technically and vocationally but also give a by-product in education that prepares him morally, physically, socially and intellectually

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for citizenship. He is trained to be not only a successful leader or worker but also a useful member of society—one who knows how to enjoy his leisure, his work, and the companionship and friendship of his fellowman—a joy to his family and friends. This is true preparation for life.

WILLIAM H. DOOLEY.
Straubenmüller Textile H. S.

GUIDANCE, SOFT PEDAGOGY, PSYCHOMETRY AND SCIENTIFIC NONSENSE

I.

It is unfortunate that the so-called "mental hygiene movement" has come to mean for many teachers just one more symptom of the general trend toward soft pedagogy. Of the scathing denunciations of what mental hygiene committees are attempting to do, the most indignant springs from the notion, perhaps often justified, that the psychologist coddles his victim. Learned critics decry the influence of those who would help the adolescent who has gone off the beaten track by picturing the psychologist as using sweet words of sympathy when what is needed is the *bastinado*. Unfortunately there are such "psychologists," people who would not have poor John Jones punished even when he gleefully throws his garbage from the lunch room window on the heads of people in the street, kind souls who would not speak roughly to Peter Smith even when he cruelly beats up a helpless youngster half his size and steals his bicycle, but that there are such psychologists is an amusing commentary, if you like, on human nature, hardly an indictment of psychology.

Unless I badly misread the analytic psychologists, the morality that emerges from their work is of the sternest stuff. In an age that generally thinks of the vilest individual as a victim of a wicked environment, stupid parents, nasty teachers or just capitalism (this, I suppose, is realistic thinking), it is modern psychology that drives home the ancient and most unpleasant truth embodied in the well known quotation:

> "The fault, dear Brutus, is not in our stars,
> But in ourselves, that we are underlings."

"It is so much more direct, striking, impressive and thus convincing," says Carl Jung, "to see how it happens to me than to see how I do it."

Thomas Mann comments on the above thus: "Nobody has focused so sharply as he the Schopenhauer-Freud perception that the 'giver of all given conditions resides in ourselves—a truth which despite all evidence in the greatest as in the smallest things *never* becomes conscious, though it is only too often necessary, even indispensable, that it should be.' "

This idea is so appallingly unpleasant that we admit its truth, if at all, only when we are applying it to other people. I have seen teachers go almost mad when a student insists on excusing some particularly vicious behavior by blaming it on his stars. It is so obvious to the teacher that the behavior was determined by something in the boy himself.

Modern psychology allows no individual to go on thinking that if his parents had been wiser or wealthier, that if only we had a saner socio-economic order, that if he were only better understood, that if schools were only better, that if, if, if—then he would be a happier, healthier, finer person. Some cases are victims of atrocious early training, of a poor heredity and a worse environment, but there is nowhere in modern psychology any justification for letting an individual excuse himself on these grounds. "To understand all is to forgive all" is a wise and charitable maxim to bear in mind when judging others.

If the psychologist seems soft in explaining the many causes of an adolescent's delinquent behavior at a faculty conference, he is hard (to the case, cruel) in not letting the adolescent use these causes as excuses. His father may be an impotent Casper Milquetoast using relief money to console himself in a corner saloon and his mother may be a maudlin hysteric with an I.Q. of 60 and fifteen kids, but the son's behavior, though explained by these facts, is not condoned by them. Sloppy pity is the worst therapy for such a lad. This, I submit, is stern doctrine. Let anyone, as Emerson suggests, apply it consistently to his own life and discover how stern it is.

There is another harsh bit of doctrine, old as the hills but emphasized anew by modern psychology, that says there is no growth without pain. The consultant is really only useful to the case who "suffers." For the adolescent overcome with shame or fear, the right adult can be literally a Godsend. The impossible case is the one who enjoys his symptoms. To him, normal, decent behavior is a bird in the bush and the wisest thing the psychologist can do with such a one is to place him in a situation where his behavior will lead to acute distress. This is not punishment in the traditional sense; the psychologist has little faith that a flogging would help and he considers it the gravest error to arbitrarily inflict physical pain, but it is the soundest therapy, though often difficult or impossible to carry out, to have the case walk into a situation where his own behavior will lead to painful consequences.

That is why, very often, it is

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the coddling mental hygienist who wishes to Heaven that the school environment were made of sterner stuff. The happy delinquent gets away with murder in an environment such as a modern high school where the worst thing that can happen to him is "failure" or stern lectures from authority, both of which are a small price to pay for the continued enjoyment of his symptoms. Such things are apt to amuse the hardened case and give him a prestige with his own gang that the bright, obedient lad has only with adults. It is the whole set-up in our high schools that makes it easy for such specimens, not the special advisers. When the happy, adolescent megalomaniac must be endured until he is seventeen or eighteen because the law says so, and there is nothing really hard enough in his environment for him to hurt himself against, change in his behavior is just about impossible to induce.

Some of our tough youngsters, so long as home and school constitute their main environment, are in the enviable position of an individual who could violate all the principles of ordinary hygiene without ever getting ill. Parents in despair send the boy to military school, but even then it is military school, not the army. The psychologist confronted with some insolent dolt who has just waxed insulting to one of the younger woman teachers, laments as much as anybody, the fact that low grades, irritated teachers and tearful parents are about all this individual really has to endure. Such a case, as he smirks with self-satisfaction, is obviously *well*-adjusted.

The school adviser does useful work, and very important work it is, with the adolescent whose symptoms are painful to him. (Outside of schools, it is obvious, no one ever goes to a consulting psychologist unless driven by his own distress.) Home and school, unfortunately, often postpone the severe pain that announces to the patient that he is ill. As in organic disease, if the pain be delayed until the disease has progressed too far, cure is often impossible. Hence the 20,000 suicides a year.

Perhaps, where the notion of the psychologist's softness arises, is that even with the worst culprit, he does not wax indignant, even righteously indignant, and thus get himself into a stew about this case who has just driven his Math teacher frantic. He is just as hard-boiled, however, as the teacher who has reached the stage where he would enjoy seeing the case guillotined. He is aware that much more is needed than the impotent anger of teachers to cure this specimen and that the odds are all in favor of that "much more" arriving, sooner or later. A certain sort of adolescent, in fact, finds the attention he gets from outraged adults an added pleasure and will often pull some new trick of misbehavior when the attention wanes. Callous indifference on the part of adults as to what becomes of him would sometimes work miracles for

the older high school lad, but try recommending that technique to Mama. It is seldom that the school counselor meets a parent as strict as himself and when he does, it is the parent who thinks of strictness in terms of a beating or the sort of punishment that relieves the feelings of the parent and makes the offspring worse.

Suppose we consider the not uncommon adolescent about sixteen or seventeen, usually from a middle class home, who runs away. Father and Mother get a fine case of the jitters and call up the school. If our main aim is to relieve the distress of the parent, the best thing is to set the police on his trail. He will be brought back with promptness, observe the effect of his behavior on his parents, and the next time things at home do not please him, run away again. But suppose our major aim is to help the boy grow up, assume some responsibility for himself and put away childish things. We shall let him go. He will turn up of his own account, cured, or will learn self-reliance and independence and several other major virtues that he would never learn so well in a class room. I recommend the first article in the "Readers Digest" for October 1936 entitled "Mother, I'm in Jail" as a practical example of what one mother did.

In the cases I have known, however, of boys running away, there has been no parent who would even consider such a procedure. Merely suggesting it branded me as an insensitive brute who obviously had no children of my own. When the boy disappeared again, I did not say, "I told you so." I said, "Madam, this is a case for the police." I have known a few cases of periodic runaways, a plot of whose escapes would be a symmetrical curve like that of the periodic sprees of a certain kind of alcoholic adult.

So much for the subject of mental hygiene and soft pedagogy. The psychologist may possess all kinds of undesirable traits and usually does, but if he has even that meager understanding of the human mind that we have acquired in 1939, he does not coddle his cases. He knows there is no psychological equivalent for novocaine.

The fact that a certain type of sentimental adult is often attracted to the work of "guidance" and looks upon himself as a cushion to protect his charges from the hard bumps of reality does not alter the fact that the knowing psychologist, when the occasion calls for it, is as cold as an iceberg and hard as nails.

II.

This is as good a place as any to consider another supposedly devastating criticism of the work of guidance committees. "Analytic psychology," runs this refrain, "is not

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scientific." To which an excellent reply would be, "Of course not."

This insistent demand that psychology be a science in the sense that every statement about the human mind be quantitatively demonstrable is absurd. If it be taken seriously, the mind itself disappears and you have a minor branch of physiology like Behaviorism which got John Watson a good job in the advertising business.

There is no justification for the notion that the methods found so useful in Physics and Biology are of more than extremely limited value in the study of the "psyche," and it would clear the atmosphere considerably if experimental psychology and mental testing were called "Psychometry." When science becomes so dogmatic a faith that the individual mind is to be snared in an abstraction, science becomes silly, when not downright pernicious. It is a sorry state of intellectual affairs when the attempts of a profound student like Carl Jung to get at the realities of the modern mind are dismissed by people diddling with guinea pigs as "merely philosophical." The major difficulty with much of the tripe that passes for psychology in the twentieth century is that it is merely scientific, merely selects that insignificant part of the mind that is measurable, and having measured it, jumps to all sorts of very bad philosophical conclusions. Pavlov's dog wrapped in a tape measure might well be the emblem of the western world's contemporary faith.

This credulousness of the educated adult when confronted with the Authority of Holy Science, especially when it is combined, as it usually is, with utter skepticism about every thing else, is one of the anomalies of our "zeitgeist." It is not too difficult to imagine a future when heretics will be burned, non-believers liquidated, and crusades of butchery launched, all in the name of some idiotic Ideology which, its sponsors will assure the faithful, has Scientific Justification.

Here is an adolescent, sensitive, intelligent, and hopelessly neurotic. He hates and fears his father because of that gentleman's drunken brutality toward his mother and himself. His shame and terror about the whole domestic mess are a little more than he can endure much longer. Tied emotionally to his mother with ties that shall have to be broken, he can neither escape by his own efforts nor adjust himself to the situation. Inner conflict is consuming his energies to the extent that he is physically ill half the time,—nervous exhaustion, headaches, nausea. Medicine men can alleviate the symptoms, scientific knowledge can label the trouble according to some school or other, but who is going to help the lad through the mental wilderness that stretches far ahead. Quite possibly, no one.

But if there is to be human aid, it will come from some one who has far more than a scientific technique at his command. In these matters, the wrong man with the right methods is of less use than the right man with no methods. This is no appendix to be removed; this, to use a most unscientific metaphor, is a soul to be saved. If it helps us to help him by thinking of complexes to be cured—good, but we do not get closer to the realities of the immediate situation, nor do we become scientists by switching metaphors. Such a boy needs a mature adult. This might be his religious adviser, a teacher whom he respects or a kindly uncle. If every adolescent had a wise old bachelor uncle who had been around a bit, a great deal of storm and stress might be averted.

Modern psychology is to some extent ancient wisdom with the poetry removed; anyhow, a mere matter of using metaphors that sound scientific. "Security" means the same as "salvation"; "change of attitude" is about the same as "repentance" and "social conscience" or some silly phrase like that sounds more important and modern than "good will." We waste time trying to prove that the task of helping miserable high school students is scientific, because it is not. Nor can it be. To the horrified exclamation: "But your work is not scientific!", let us henceforth answer, vulgarly, "So what?"

HUBERT HART

Boys High School.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE TO STUDY TRENDS IN ENGLISH COURSES OF STUDY AND HANDBOOKS*

In line with our changing times, English handbooks and courses of study have been growing and changing, too. We feel that this is as it should be. Even the best statement of aims and means of achieving them becomes old as soon as it is put on paper. At least two-thirds of the schools wrote that they were revising their syllabi or that they had a syllabus they were sending, but that many changes had been made since the syllabus was published. In many cases, we knew from contact with other schools that there were many fine devices and programs that did not appear in print.

The most recently issued syllabi reflect the influence of the state

* Mr. Joseph Block of Seward Park High School was the chairman of this committee. The study was sponsored by the New York City Association of Teachers of English.

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syllabus and the *Experience Curriculum*. There is a noticeable attempt to adapt activities and literature to the student population. This freedom seems particularly desirable in a city which has so many types of students, often segregated in distinct districts. A struggle to follow the present junior high school syllabus in English with students unable to cope with it, makes one grateful for a wider choice of materials and methods.

Thirty-one high schools responded to our plea with printed and mimeographed material. The other schools sent their excuses, usually that of revision. To simplify this tabulation, we have chosen the more usual divisions found in the syllabi.

Handbooks

Two clothbound manuals
Two paper bound manuals
One paper bound English and secretarial studies handbook
One handbook of the whole school written by students
Six handbooks of the whole school with an English section

These handbooks contain an amazing amount of useful material. Nearly all contain lists of books suitable for supplementary reading. In few schools, the students are referred directly to the lists prepared by the National Council.

Other features frequently found are statements of aims, in general or by grades; the literature cores; minimum essentials in grammar; spelling lists based on subjects, literature, or previously discovered needs; spelling rules; vocabulary building; letter forms and less frequently, memory selections, sight reading passages, and a statement of elective classes.

Where the handbook includes the whole school, there is often a list of clubs. Where there are separate speech departments, the material the student should have in his hands is usually given space in whatever type of book used.

Aims

Most syllabi have a statement of aims and objectives both in general and by terms. The general aims are so similar and the specific objectives so varied with each school that no generalizations seem adequate.

Methods

Suggested methods were given by fourteen of the thirty-one schools. In three cases detailed directions for teachers were given in the syllabus. Several schools still arrange the syllabi according to weeks for each term. In some cases definite pages and chapters are indicated. The newer syllabi state the minimum essentials for each term, but encourage the teacher to adapt the work to the needs of the class. Methods for handling slow classes and lesson groups are given.

Literature

There are two interesting trends in the study of literature. One is the tendency to read more books rapidly. This is accomplished by having many titles available in two or three sets or more rather than many sets of the same title. In this way the literature may be adapted to the needs of the class. The pupils do more reading and are more apt to become habitual readers. In one school there is a list of four typewritten sheets of books that may be ordered from the bookroom. The classics are present but are supplemented by modern fiction and books of a practical nature as well.

The other innovation is a use of cores for each term. Some typical examples follow given in the syllabus.

School A

1. Man in Action (Adventure and the Sea)
2. Men and Supermen (Heroes of Legend and History)
3. Man and His Neighbors (Into Human Nature)
4. Man and His Voice (The Power of the Spoken Word)
5. Man and Society (Problems of the Human Conduct as Seen in Man's Clash with Society)
6. Man and His Emotions (Clash with Himself)
7. Man and His Mind (The Power of Reason)
8. Reading Maketh a Full Man (Literature as Interpretation of Life)

School B

1. Man and Adventure
2. Man and His Environment
3. Man and His Tradition
4. Man and His Tradition
5. Man and His Political Environment.
6. Man and Society.
7. Man and His Domestic Environment.
8. Man and the Individual

School C

1. Youth and Adventure
2. Courage and Character
3. The Variety of Human Nature
4. The Individual and the Community
5. The Fullness of Expression
6. Pioneers in Life, Thought, and Fancy

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7. *Adjustment to Nature and Society*
8. *Significance in the Universe*

School D

1. Adventure
2. Heroes, Legends, Myths
3. (Speech term)
4. Real People in a Real World
5. Men in Conflict
6. Men and Ideals
7. The World of Ideas
8. Modern World—Masterpieces

Supplementary Reading

Reading lists were given in thirteen of the sixteen handbooks submitted. Some listed books according to interest such as novels of adventure, comedies, character, drama, aviation, vocations, men of action, manners, to choose a few at random. After each title, the grade was written, another very useful list graded the books by difficulty (1 to 3) in English and other subjects. Four schools use the National Council Lists instead of their own.

Four schools have a library of forty to fifty supplementary books of ten or twelve assorted titles in each English class to circulate among the members of the class for the term. One school with such class libraries of supplementary books selects the books for each grade in accordance with the core theme for that grade.

Several schools require four supplementary books per pupil per term. Others vary from two to six. A number gave no specific requirement.

Only four of the schools mentioned a permanent record of reading for eight terms, although it is known that more do use them. Three schools gave directions or suggestions for written book reports in their handbooks, and one gave an outline for written book reports. One school's syllabus prescribed written book reports and suggested in its syllabus conferences between teacher and pupil as a check on supplementary reading.

The trend in the newer syllabi, however, seems to be against written book reports. One syllabus gives the following suggestions:

Since admittedly the aims of supplementary reading are:

1. To stimulate interest in the reading of books
2. To develop discriminating tastes by setting up standards
3. To give pupils joy of discussing their reading

those methods should be used which best achieve these aims. Therefore the written book report should be used not more than once a term; oral, conversation, interview, and discussion types being used for the others. Avoid a succession of disconnected talks by individual pupils. Some integrating principle or aim, capable of development, should control the talks and pupils should make general points, using their books as illustrations. If such a plan is followed, there can be no boring retelling of the story.

English Aids

Two schools mentioned a library of illustrative material kept in the English office for use of the teachers. Two schools have victrolas and records for English classes. Five schools mentioned stencil-files kept in the English office, two of drill materials, one of letter forms, and three of précis passages graded by terms. Three schools list reference books for teachers to be obtained in either the English office or in the school library.

Reading Skills

At least three quarters of the schools mentioned training in silent reading. The newest syllabi mention a testing program. The tests are given in terms 1, 2, 3 and 4 or almost any combination of those. Teachers are asked to give attention to reading skills in all classes, particularly in connection with the literature read. Some schools have a separate section of the syllabus devoted to reading techniques. A typical outline of one follows:

Recreational reading
Work-type reading

1. Reasonable eye-group
2. Understanding of sentence and paragraph structure
3. Necessary vocabulary
4. Adequate experience basis

Silent Reading

1. Teaching devices
2. Criteria for silent reading tests

Oral Reading

There was also a diagnostic chart divided into three parallel sections (1) evidence of defect (2) diagnose (3) remedial suggestions. Both sections were adapted from the *Twenty-Fourth Year Book.*

Most schools have special remedial classes in English 1 and 2. One school for gifted pupils included special classes for pupils with difficulties in the technical aspects of English. Some have special work in silent reading in all slow classes in terms 1 through 6.

Précis work is mentioned in thirteen of the schools, usually in the upper terms. In the lower terms it is a natural outgrowth of the study of reading techniques.

Composition

Four schools gave lists of suggested composition topics, and one gave suggested topics for exposition only. Four schools indicated definite prescribed lessons for the first two weeks of each grade, including composition. One school used (at the time of the compilation of its syllabus, at least) prescribed test themes at the beginning of the first four terms and indicated that these test themes were to be marked by the Nassau

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Composition Scale in the English office. Almost all handbooks give symbols for correction.

Two schools require the storing of compositions in uniform notebooks, two in folders, and one in composition corrective envelopes. One syllabus gave suggestions for correction by means of group and board work. One school requires the charting of errors on a composition corrective chart printed on the composition envelope. One syllabus gave specific instructions for composition revision by pupils the day after the writing of the composition and before teacher correction. Some schools require a written piece of work corrected by the teacher each week; some, every two weeks; some, from four to six test themes a term; some make no definite mention of the amount.

One school has a composition contract for each term divided into minimum, average, and maximum credit. In another, in addition to the classbook projects, each student may be allowed to choose a topic in which he is interested enough to write five or more themes, and to substitute this for the regular theme work.

The trend seems to be toward clear motivation and discussion in advance of writing, the choice of a general topic broken down into specific composition topics, the use of student experience and desire for communication. Projects and long term assignments seem growing in favor. Letters are specially stressed particularly in the earlier term where the form must be mastered.

Minimum Essentials (Grammar, Punctuation, Usage.)

Minimum essentials are listed by terms by fifteen of the schools (three listing the pages of the grammar texts by terms), two schools list minimum essentials by half-terms, and one of these prescribes diagnostic tests in terms 1, 2, and 4. One school lists minimum essentials by terms for terms 1 through 4 only. The emphasis seems to be on fuctional grammar, although four of the schools emphasize formal grammar in great detail by half-terms with indication of specific pages to be covered in specific texts.

Library Instruction

Library directions are given in ten of the handbooks and manuals. One handbook gives directions by terms, and one clothbound manual gives detailed directions plus exercises.

Library instructions is mentioned in eleven of the twenty-four syllabi. One school mentions library lessons by the librarians in terms 1, 3, 5, and 7. One syllabus calls for a library lesson by the English teacher at the beginning of each term. One school devotes two weeks in English 7 to library instruction. One school lists library instruction in terms, 1, 3, 5, 6, 7, and 8. One school has library lessons in terms 3 and 7 and devotes much space in its handbook to information about reference books. One school has a special library syllabus for terms 1 through 6, calling for two lessons per term by the English teacher with uniform mimeographed lesson sheets to be worked on by the pupil in the library with the assistance of the librarian.

Spelling

Spelling lists are given in ten of the handbooks, one by half-terms, one by terms, and one in an alphabetized list for the entire course. Six of the other schools discuss spelling in their syllabi, one giving lists by half-terms, one by terms, and one by terms with pages in a text. Some of the lists are chosen from words most often misspelled, some from subjects in the curriculum, some from the literature texts. Two schools merely advocate individual lists. One uses the state lists.

Dictionary Training and Vocabulary Building

Nine of the handbooks discuss vocabulary building, and six of them give lists of words, five by terms and two by texts. Sixteen of the twenty-four schools mention vocabulary building in their syllabi. One mentions vocabulary building and dictionary training only in connection with Remedial Reading classes. One school provides for such training in term 5 with two textbooks to be used for the purpose. One school provides for vocabulary building in terms 1 and 4, and one in terms 1, 2, 5, and 6. One school gives lists of new words by terms, and two provide lists of words by texts used in the course of study in literature.

The newer syllabi particularly stress word building through root-suffixes and prefixes because of the necessity of a large vocabulary in reading efficiently.

Oral Work

Eleven of the handbooks have sections on oral English. Thirteen of the schools seem to have separate terms for speech, five in terms 3 and 5, and one in terms 3 and 6. Only five of the thirteen schools mention speech correction classes, but this omission may be caused by the fact that such classes are included in the Speech Department syllabi. Eighteen of the twenty-four schools discuss oral work in their syllabi. These schools call for one period per week devoted to oral work, and one school prescribes two periods weekly. Two Speech Departments provide series of drills that are to be used by English classes.

One school provides a syllabus in conversation by terms to be used at the discretion of the teacher.

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Training in Listening

Four syllabi mention training in listening. In one school, pupils have to outline speeches they have listened to. In each case stress is laid on careful listening during oral work to evaluate what has been said.

Memory Work

Fifteen of the syllabi mention memory work. One prescribes specific poems by terms, and one suggests passages by texts in the course of study. One handbook prints the required selections by terms, and one prints suggested assignments by terms. Requirements vary from ten lines to two hundred per term. The newer syllabi make no requirements. Memory work is suggested where it can be properly motivated.

Ability Grouping

Four schools report A, B, and C classes of the same grade, and one of these schools has a fourth group for repeaters. One school reports regular, honor, progress, and adjustment classes. Three schools provide special classes for double failures. One school provides classes in which the regular work of one term is done in two terms by slow pupils. Two schools give failures an opportunity to make up their work by placing them in special classes to do the work of the higher term on probation. One school has a special school-within-the-school for low-ability pupils with special English classes provided. One school provides Remedial English classes for pupils of all grades who have difficulties with the technical aspects of English. One school provides a special class for English 6 pupils who have difficulty mastering minimum essentials. One school provides a separate syllabus in grammar for slow classes, and one school suggests reducing the amount of literature for slow classes. Three schools have separate syllabi for slow pupils.

Three schools have separate honor school syllabi, and one school suggests specific enrichment by terms for honor classes. Four schools mention A classes in English, and three of these have honor classes in addition.

Electives in English are, in general, open to superior pupils only. Four schools have electives in Journalism, five in Creative Writing, two in Drama, one in Forum, two in English Literature, and one in an integrated course of English and History.

Bibliography for Teachers

Only five schools mention books for teachers and of these four indicate a library of such books kept in the English office for the use of teachers.

Magazines and Newspapers

Only eight of the eleven schools mention the study of newspapers or magazines in their syllabi. Of these six, one school mentions newspapers in connection with the Journalism elective only, and one school indicates the study of newspapers in English 6 only. One syllabus prescribes the study of newspapers in term 5 and the study of magazines in terms 7 and 8. One school lists the study of periodicals in detail for each term. Two schools prescribe the study of newspapers and magazines for each term with definite procedures for placing the publications in the hands of the students.

Radio and Motion Pictures

There is no indication in any one of the syllabi of any use of radio or motion pictures in connection with the work in English.

Social Conduct

One school mentions training in writing "notes of social courtesy" in terms 1, 2, and 4. One school has a special syllabus for eight terms in training in social conduct.

Special Syllabi

One school has a special Peace Education Syllabus and a special Safety Education syllabus to be used in English classes. The Peace Education syllabus gives aims and suggestions for eight terms with readings in poetry and prose, discussion topics, oral and written composition subjects, and passages for précis work. The Safety Education syllabus is for the third year and contains work for six periods in term 5 and nine periods in term 6.

References to State Syllabus

These schools refer teachers to the State Syllabus for help and guidance, and one school reprints the State Syllabus in parallel columns with its own.

Dates of Syllabi

Eleven of the syllabi are undated. The dated ones are as follows:

1923

1932 (with an Honor School syllabus dated 1938)

1936

1937

1938 (five schools)

1939

Mary Mildred White
Seward Park High School.

Hortense Hennenberg
High School of Music and Art.

Julius Rothenberg
Straubenmüller Textile High School.

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INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS IN THE CLASSROOM

Viewed from the standpoint of the teacher, the study of international relations in a New York City high school classroom is a twofold problem. First, there is the choice of occasions upon which correlation can be made between the content of a social studies course required by the curriculum and the outstanding current problems in international relations. An international relations club reaches those who are already interested, but the keen teacher can stimulate interest among the large classes of students by bringing in pertinent contemporary material. For example, class discussion of trade by members of the Hanseatic League will be more valuable if one or more students can report on the present status of Danzig, or American neutrality legislation before the War of 1812 will be remembered in the light of present day Congressional plans for a neutrality law. The student whose home setting affords an understanding of international relations may foresee such correlations, but the majority of students need the stimulus supplied by the teacher. No one pattern of correlation will fit each successive year. The challenge to be up-to-date lies with the teacher.

The second problem is the selection among the multiplicity of aids and opportunities afforded by metropolitan life, of those most useful for any given project. The present article aims to call attention to a certain number of aids available and useful for the high school student as well as the teacher. The student must also learn to select.

Attention may be called to the Teachers' Public Library, at 121 East 58th Street, where the teacher may consult much of the printed material referred to in this article, and where the librarians are most helpful.

Given school conditions in New York, it is more practical to train students by means of radio than by newspapers. Certainly, the latter should be encouraged, and if possible, the choice of newspaper developed so that the student will desire the ones that give adequate international news. Even in the New York area, there are not yet classroom lessons over the radio for the high school age,[1] and therefore, the problem for the teacher is to stimulate the use of the radio in the home for broadcasts of international events, with the presentation and discussion of such material in the classroom. The teacher should acquaint himself at the begining of a semester with the programs pertinent to international relations broadcast by the stations available in New York. They may generally be classified under one of three types: news reviews, news commentators, and panels or discussions. Each student should be encouraged to listen to at least one news broadcast a day. In as much as each major station gives about four reviews a day, this is feasible. When a student follows a given news review for a period of time, it becomes a habit, like reading the newspaper, with a sense of loss when a day is missed. Class discussion, if only fifteen minutes a week, of the material heard by different students listening to different broadcasts, helps to fill in background, and also to develop a critical attitude toward the presentation of news. If, as is probable, such panels as the Town Meeting of the Air on WJZ, the University of Chicago roundtable discussion on WEAF, and the "March of Time" on WJZ are continued, certain of their programs merit the attention of the entire group of students, with discussion of the points-of-view represented.[2] The large broadcasting stations have school departments which are glad to furnish information about the broadcasts. N.B.C. issues a monthly leaflet called "NBC Presents" which gives the general plan of programs from which those related to international affairs may be readily chosen, while "Radio Guide," issued weekly, gives general indications of all programs, with some discussion of radio problems. The potentialities of radio as a factor in international relations themselves, made itself felt at the time of the Munich crisis. The youth of today need to learn its rightful use. Its advent is perhaps the greatest revolution since the invention of moveable type, with the spread of the printed word. Teachers cannot afford to ignore it, and used with discretion, the radio can be an invaluable aid in the study of international relations.

A second supplement to the classroom, is the moving picture. Here again, moving pictures de-

[1] Such programs as the American School of the Air by the Columbia Broadcasting System, are designed for grade schools. A review of events, such as Dr. Quincy Howe gave last year over WNYC at 11 a.m. on Tuesdays might be useful. For the most part, broadcasts of news or of a kind to be useful for international relations are not given during school hours.

[2] Columbia University Press issues a 10 cent booklet for each Town Meeting of the Air, and the University of Chicago also publishes a leaflet useful with their roundtable discussions. This booklet costs 20 cents, and may be obtained directly from Teachers College.

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signed for the classroom record the past, not the immediate events, and hence, the problem is one of selection and recommendation of certain current films. Students will listen to the radio and go to the movies without encouragement, but recommendation of particular films and discussion of them in the class room will draw out educational values that might otherwise be lost because of the entertainment value alone. Newsreels, which too often play up sensational features, should be supplemented by reading material. The so-called documentary film is helpful in stimulating interest, but such a film does not ordinarily form a part of the film program in the average motion picture house. There has been some gain, perhaps, in that respect in the last few years. The teacher should be aware of any that would be helpful for the material to be discussed, and should also be familiar with the outstanding films produced each year. Discussion of the background and setting of such films as "Emile Zola," "Marie Antoinette," or "Juarez," will sharpen the critical appreciation of the students.

The kind of aid that the teacher of social studies needs, with guidance in the authenticity of the film, sources to check its features, or discussion of the historical significance, is not being published as yet. "Educational and Recreational Guides, Inc.," 1501 Broadway, issues a study pamphlet for each of the major films of historical significance, but the approach is not that of historical criticism. The pamphlets would be of aid for English classes in the analysis of dramatic, narrative, and artistic values, but of little help as an aid in international relations. The same lack may be noted in "Educational Screen," published monthly, in the film page of the "Scholastic" or other such publications.

Dr. Mary E. Townes of Teachers College has recently published a pamphlet entitled "Teaching with Motion Pictures."[3] This is a useful guide to all kinds of information pertinent to the use of films. Attention of the teacher may also be called to two lists of films, issued annually: a list of educational films published by H. W. Wilson Company, 960 University Avenue, and the Catalogue of School Film Libraries, issued by that Association, at 9 Rockefeller Plaza. New York City affords more opportunities to see foreign films than the average American city—an opportunity in international relations which should be utilized. A noticeable contrast in the presentation of foreign films as compared with the best American ones is in itself a challenge to the development of an understanding of other points of view. English captions eliminate language difficulties, but often leave greater range of interpretation to the spectator. There are many educational values for international relations inherent in present day motion pictures. Bring the best of them into the classroom discussion.

Radio and motion pictures both afford indirect help for international relations, but the third aid is direct and indispensable: pamphlet material. It is timely and inexpensive, and four agencies in New York produce material useful for the high school student. H. W. Wilson handles orders for pamphlets from many agencies, while single orders may always be sent from the particular agency issuing the pamphlets.

The Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 405 West 117th Street, publishes numerous pamphlets each year dealing with particular phases of international problems.[4] It has a most useful series of Discussion Guides for meetings on economic interdependence, with supplementary material.

The Foreign Policy Association is already widely used by the high schools.[5] The Headline Books are the best single aid for study of particular topics. Study packets are prepared for use with Headline booklets and often furnish original sugestions for the teacher. The F.P.A. has a special club service and has available free of charge several one-meeting programs. The special student membership of $1 a year or 60 cents a semester should be within the reach of most New York students. The student forum held after the regular luncheon discussions has been attended more regularly by groups from the outlying districts than from New York City schools. These periodic luncheon discussions, which may again be broadcast, can furnish an invaluable approach for classroom discussion, supplemented by Headline Books and other pamphlet material. Silver, Burdett Company, 45 East 17th Street handles quantity order with discount, for F.P.A. publications.

The National Peace Conference, 8 West 40th Street, issues a monthly bulletin called "Where to

[3] This booklet costs 20 cents, and may be obtained directly from Teachers College.

[4] The Carnegie Endowment will furnish international relations clubs free of charge twice a year a packet of pamphlets with suggestions from the Foreign Policy Publications, and other different organizations.

[5] The offices of the Foreign Policy Association are at 8 West 40th Street. Many of their services are for adults, but the ones mentioned in this article are useful for high school students. Teachers pay a reduced fee for membership, but with full privileges. The student membership entitles the student to receive the weekly news bulletin, one Headline book, to attend the luncheon discussions free of charge, and to participate in the student forum after the luncheon. Useful discussion material is sent to the teacher for the luncheon topic several days in advance of the day.

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find it." This serves as a most useful bibliography of current pamphlets on international relations.

The fourth organization, also at 8 West 40th Street, the League of Nations Association, has several services designed for the high school level. The annual high school contest, which last spring had more entrants than ever before, affords opportunity for a specific classroom project, or a club project. "The Chronicle," a survey of international events published monthly, meets the high school reading level better than most periodic news reviews, and should have more subscribers in the metropolitan area than it has.[6] The L.N.A. also publishes pamphlet material helpful for a knowledge of existing peace machinery. International understanding is essential to improvement of world conditions. New York City classes, where there are so many students with foreign backgrounds, need both American patriotism and a broad outlook on international affairs.

The New York area affords a wealth of study trips, directly or indirectly useful for international relations. Conciliation Trips, directed by Dr. C. V. Howell of Teachers College, can be helpful for groups or clubs, but are not perhaps practical for the average high school class.[7] The museums and historical associations prepare special exhibits from time to time, which are announced on the education page of Sunday newspapers. The presence of the New York World's Fair affords an incomparable opportunity to visit the world at home, to correct misconceptions, and to revaluate international concepts. Every student should be encouraged to visit carefully the various foreign concessions and also the League of Nations Pavilion. This small building is one of the best educational exhibits at the World's Fair and affords convincing proof of the constructive work the League has been carrying on, despite its depreciators and enemies. As an encouragement to high school students to visit the League Pavilion and to interpret the challenge of world peace, the League of Nations Association is sponsoring a contest open to all New York students between the ages of 12 and 18.[8] The contest closes October 1st. Although many students may have submitted essays already, this is another occasion when encouragement by the teacher may stimulate added interest and participation.

Each new school year opens with a challenge to the social studies teacher to prepare more adequately the citizens of to-morrow. No one aid, no one system will work every year. World conditions are constantly changing, yet the same social studies textbook may be used for many years. That is why the best teachers are themselves aware of international events, and by utilization of the most serviceable supplements to the textbook, train the alert, informed youth which America neds as future citizens and leaders of our democracy.

BEATRICE F. HYSLOP.
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[6] Subscription to the "Chronicle" is $1 a year.

[7] The fee for these trips vary, but many of them are one dollar per person. When restaurants are included, the cost of the meal is, of course, an addition.

[8] Notice of this contest was sent to all schools in the city. Further information is obtainable at the League Pavilion or from the Association office. The student is asked to write an essay, not exceeding 2,500 words, on the topic "The League of Nations in the World of Yesterday, To-day and To-morrow." Two sets of prizes for two ages groups, of $25 and $10 are being offered.

A STUDENT GUIDANCE COMMITTEE

It was in June, following the assembly for elementary school pupils about to enter Tilden, that Mazie, a fifth term student, came to the chairman of the Guidance Department with her idea that older students might help in the guidance of younger ones. They were so "green," so "bewildered." Why couldn't the older boys and girls "tip them off" to the pitfalls of high school life? Maizie wished someone had told her "a few things"!

Maizie sold her idea, and in November, 1936, the Guidance Department of the Samuel J. Tilden High School inaugurated an experiment in the utilization of an older student group, which called itself the Student Guidance Committee, for the adjustment of new entrants to the school.

This Student Guidance Committee aimed:

First, to spread information regarding the school building; the location of gymnasia, swimming pool, lunchroom, library, nature room, guidance office, sick room.

—to make known the extra-curricular activities of the school; the various clubs available, method of joining a club, how to obtain service credit, how to join a team, how to obtain a library card, requirements for election to Arista, and the meaning of Arista.

—to bring to the attention of students the broad curriculum of our school, requirements for graduation, requirements for college entrance.

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—to give new entrants the benefits of student experience, pointing toward the need for educational and vocational planning early in the high school course, good study habits, and proper attitudes toward work and play.

Second, to give the bewildered new entrant the encouraging feeling that he has a friend among the pupils in the school to whom he may turn for advice, for information, and for help in making social contacts.

The Student Committee consisted of one representative from each fifth and sixth term official class, elected by the students of the class. Committee members were asked to approach the students of the class, either individually or in groups, for voluntary service as Big Brothers and Sisters. The plan was enthusiastically received, and within a week 197 students had been listed for service. These Big Sisters and Brothers were carefully instructed by the counselor in charge of the assignment regarding the work to be done with new entrants. They were asked to keep in constant touch with the class representative for further information and for help.

The class representatives who made up the Student Committee, continued to function as an executive group. In order to distribute its work better, this group agreed to elect sub-committees. All of the students were very eager to serve, and in some cases it was difficult to decide whether the assignment was to go to the one who could contribute most or to the student who could benefit most from participation in a particular activity. An assignment committee was established, to do the arduous task of placing new entrants in the care of older students. The six students who were members of this committee did an excellent piece of work in setting up forms, making assignments, and distributing letters of introduction. A sub-committee on social activities was to plan dances, parties, or teas, at which younger students might meet older ones. A committee on annex activities was to work out plans for coördination with the annex. The educational guidance committee specialized in bringing to the committee-of-the-whole and to both older and younger students information on the curriculum of the school, graduation requirements, and college entrance requirements. And, a committee on extra-curricular activities was to present to these students information on the possibilities of such activity within and without the school. Interestingly enough, the most popular committee was that on social activities. Almost every student expressed a desire to serve on this committee and there was keen disappointment written on the faces of some who were not chosen. For, in order to spread the work over the entire group, no student was appointed to serve on more than one sub-committee.

With characteristic enthusiasm, the committee planned to hold "open house" during the last week of the term, for new entrants and their parents. Letters of invitation were sent to all feeding schools, asking for advance notification of the number planning to come, so that adequate preparation could be made. On the appointed day, approximately six hundred students and ten parents visited the school between the hours of one and three o'clock. All visitors gathered in the auditorium and were sent out in groups of ten, under the leadership of a Big Brother or Sister, on a carefully planned tour of the building, with stops at all points of special interest in the school. Practically all departments in the school coöperated by stationing teachers along the route to offer explanations where necessary. Touring groups were sent out three minutes apart, so that undue crowding at any one point might be avoided. The students who participated in this undertaking are worthy of commendation for their fine spirit in carrying through the plan in spite of the very hard work involved in leading these groups over a two-hour period, making explanations, and answering countless questions.

The opening of the new term found the sub-committee in charge of assignment of young students to the care of older ones hard at work. Because only 197 older students had volunteered their services, it was necessary to limit the work to a group within the entering student body. The group chosen by the committee consisted of the junior high school graduates numbering approximately four hundred. Each Big Brother and Sister was permitted to choose as many new entrants as he or she wished, for specific counsel. The number chosen varied from one to four. Letters of introduction were distributed by representatives through official classes.

And now came a clamoring for social activiity. Someone suggested a dance, and this was eagerly accepted. Students volunteered to make signs which were posted throughout the building. A reception committee was formed to make introductions; this group asked for instruction in proper etiquette, and such books as Brockman's "What Is She Like?" were read with avidity. The students took complete charge of the distribution and sale of tickets, and five hundred were sold at ten cents each. All expenses were paid, and a profit remained in the treasury. An entertainment committee rehearsed individual performers. A checking service was organized; and the school band was hired. The day of the dance came and went; and the Student Committee of the whole, wishing to profit from this first social venture, dis-

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cussed and criticized, and made plans for improved future functions. Because of the large attendance, the receiving line had not materialized; poor acoustics and lack of a stage had made it necessary to curtail entertainment; there had not been sufficient decorum; and older and younger students had not mixed sufficiently. Self-guidance was at work!

While preparation for the dance was going on, two other groups within the Committee were hard at work. One was the sub-committee on extra-curricular activities. The members of this group investigated the activities within the school and reported back to the Committee. The representatives were to carry the information back to Big Brothers and Sisters, for transmission to new entrants. In addition, two visits were made to agencies outside the school, specializing in recreational activities; these were the Flatbush Boys' Club and the Hebrew Educational Society. As a result of these visits, the committee formulated a plan to establish clubs for younger students under the sponsorship of Big Sisters and Brothers. Because of the limitation of space within the school, clubs were to be conducted in recreation centers after school hours. Official teachers of first and third term classes coöperated by turning in names of students interested in specific types of clubs. 101 students responded, asking for club activities as follows:

Dramatics	35
Hiking	30
Aviation	23
Radio	16
General Sports	13
Photography	8
Science	8
Social Dancing	4
Stamp Collecting	3
Tennis	2
Swimming	2
Fencing	1
Riding	1
Singing	1
Crafts	1
Poetry	1
Beauty Culture	1

39 students expressed more than one interest, one boy expressing six. Because the term was drawing to a close, it was not possible to organize more than one of these clubs. Three members of the Student Guidance Committee volunteered to sponsor the Dramatics Club. The Hebrew Educational Society was glad to make a meeting room available, and one meeting was held before the close of school at which enthusiastic plans were made for continued work in the fall.

The other active sub-committee was that on Educational Guidance. The six students who made up this group planned to act as aids to official teachers during the period when option cards representing next term's program were being made out. They studied course and college entrance requirements, under the direction of the counselor in charge of the project, and in turn carried on an intensive program of coaching for six additional students who had volunteered to help. On the three Fridays during which long home room periods had been set aside for this type of planning, these students stationed themselves centrally — four on each floor— ready to go into classrooms to help individual students, on call by teachers. They had been cautioned not to answer questions unless they were absolutely certain of the answers. The brief reports given by each of them indicated the enthusiasm with which they had worked; and the teachers' and students' comments indicated that their assistance was valuable.

In an effort to evaluate the work of the Committee, a questionnaire was distributed to both younger and older students. Unfortunately, however, the pressure of work at the close of the term made it impossible to check returns completely, and they are therefore incomplete. Consequently it is not possible to tell here how many contacts were actually made by these students. But, no matter how limited the number of contacts may have been (though the impression of interested observers is that it was generous), new entrants must have derived some benefit from the tour of the school building; those who came to the dance enjoyed the opportunity of mingling with older students and of observing their ways; and those who were helped in the planning of program or course were left with a better understanding of the curriculum of the school.

For the Big Sisters and Brothers and their central Committee the values of the project lay in the knowledge of school and community obtained in order to help younger students, and in the building of character that accompanies service to others. In order to conduct a tour of the school they themselves had to take that tour first; they had to know at first hand about the places which they were going to point out. Before attending the dance many learned valuable points of etiquette. To help teachers and students with program planning, they were forced to learn much about graduation requirements, the available curriculum of the school, and college entrance requisites. They studied club facilities of the school before making suggestions for new entrants. In other words, they were gathering a wealth of information for their own use, which they might not otherwise have been motivated to obtain.

As time went on, some of the less enthusistic members of the Committee dropped out. The large number who remained were tireless in their efforts. They had so many new ideas that it was necessary to

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control the amount of work involved. They carried on countless sub-committee meetings, on their own initiative, not only within the school, but at their homes. They were always ready and eager to take up the next job. For them this project was an opportunity for leadership; they were learning how to offer suggestions to a group, and how to accept criticism from that group. Theirs was a training in character through service to the school and to fellow students, as well as through participation in group thinking and action.

It is natural that specific recommendations regarding the work of the group grow out of continued experience over a long period of time. At present, the response and interest of students would lead us to recommend that the guided tour of the building for new entrants be made an accepted institution in the high school. The enthusiastic approval of teachers seems to indicate that student help in official class periods, when the program is being planned, needs to be continued. Neighborhood club activities should be extended so that younger students may obtain through the facilities of the community those special activities which are not available within the school because of the limitations of space.

It is fair to say that Maizie's idea had worked by adding a new and valuable arm to the guidance service of the school. Painstaking supervision was required to organize the student group, to instruct it, and to maintain a high level of service, professional in spirit, lest the last state of those served would be worse than the first. It seems, however, to have been worth the effort, actually and potentially, and is commended to those interested in the challenging problem of orienting semi-annually large freshman groups to the complexities of large high schools.

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Samuel J. Tilden High School.

ONE AMERICAN WAY

A Program For School Democracy—The Public Forum[1]

Dr. John L. Tildsley, before his retirement in 1937, prepared a most enlightening report on the arguments for the amalgamation of Speech and English Departments in the N. Y. City Secondary Schools.[2] In this report, a major recommendation proposed that the Speech Teacher's scope be confined almost exclusively to corrective efforts. Superintendent Frederick Ernst, who with Superintendent Moskowitz, inherited the problem posited by Dr. Tildsley, in a recent talk to the Speech Teachers Association,[3] took approximately the same position. (He felt, too, that superior students could profit greatly by special speech work). All of these men believed that the speech of the large mass of "average students" could adequately be cared for in the English class, particularly under our present financial conditions.

[1] Title suggested by J. W. Studebaker, *"The American Way; Democracy at Work in Des Moines Forums."*
[2] Dr. Tildsley's Report to Dr. Roberts June 1937.

To be sure, Dr. Tildsley came to his conclusion by the weight of evidence he had compiled in statements from Principals and Chairmen, many of whom thought of Regular Speech work in the following disparaging terms:

(1) "My observation in speech classes leads me to the conclusion that the licensed teacher of speech is likely to place too much emphasis upon the more or less mechanical phases of good speaking. Pupils are instructed in the shades of inflection and niceties of pronunciation to an extent which may even handicap rather than help the ordinary pupil in his environment. The pupil is trained to say "necess'ry" and "ah-ent," while in almost the same breath he says "ring-gink" and "coily."

(2) Speech of our pupils would be improved if speech teachers would:

(a) Stop wasting time teaching phonetic alphabet.

(b) Stop insisting on meticulous niceties of pronunciation.

(c) Teach pupils to read audibly, to phrase sensibly and talk consecutively on some topic with which they are familiar.

(3) "I am painfully aware in conversing with speech teachers that they are speech experts. I have found they had mechanical mastery of speech and that the quality of their voices was lacking in some elements which would stir the soul. That may be the reason why I am not enthusiastic for the assignment of special teachers of speech at Stuyvesant."

As a teacher of Speech and English it would be intellectually dishonest of me to deny that Speech *has had and is daily having* what literally amounts to shocking crimes committed in its name, from the extremes of pettiness its practitioners often employ (particularly our Internationally Phonetic - Minded Puritans of the "fawncy that," "rawther" ilk); to the abuses it has undergone in the hands of some Assistant Examiners who have gained everlasting fame through mastery of the N.G. rule. The silly antics of the mental lightweights in Speech work do not gainsay, however, the excellent suggestion in the

[3] March 2, 1939.

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Tildsley report that we *do need* more Speech Correction work; nor does it in any way weaken Professor James Bender's[4] brilliant defense for speech correction made at the meeting mentioned above.

After reading the report, the conviction in my own mind was that its contents were based on a mixture of some unfortunate observing added to a misunderstanding of the tremendous potentialities which regular Speech work *can have for all the children*—when taught by the intelligent, realistic teacher. Because I believe that Speech has an unequivocal place in school life *here and now,* I submit the following ideas for consideration. Let me urge, however, that this is not to be construed as more than a partial answer to Dr. Tildsley's report.

That we are living in stirring times is axiomatic. The Progressive Education Association in a recent statement asked all school men and women to aid the fight against Totalitarianism by launching a "searching study of the meaning and practise of democracy in schools and communities." Even without this admonition, every serious teacher is thinking of the democratic and anti-democratic forces moving to an inevitable clash, and is making an ever-vigilant stand for democracy, peace, tolerance, truth and goodwill—without in any way adopting methods of proselytizing and indoctrinating the child with any consistent body of dogmatic belief peculiarly the teacher's.

Fortunately, too, we have powerful democratic forces standing up to the menace. A month doesn't pass but that a book such as Lewis Mumford *Men Must Act,* or Gedye's *Betrayal in Central Europe* digs deeply into Fascism's imposing, yet vulnerable armor. The Council against Intolerance in America has launched a "nation-wide educational campaign to inculcate the principles of tolerance and good-will in the American school child"; to combat, amongst other things, the influence in thousands of school-age children throughout the nation, who are "absorbing the dangerous ideas of race hatred." Our own Board of Education has suggested Tolerance as part of the school program.

The Radio has made significant progress towards this goal in its increased stress upon Public Forums, Town Halls, People's Platforms, Debates, Discussions. Indeed it was Mr. Lyman Bryson, Chairman of the C. B. S. Adult Education Board, and Chairman of the Adult Education Department at Teachers College who, in a lecture at Northwestern University in 1938, entitled, "Discussion in the Democratic Process," said, "One way of describing democracy is to call it a system that provides for the management of public business by public discussion. As long as we believe in democracy we will believe that *talking things over* is the best way to get our public business done."—And later, after admitting that even in a democracy one must trust to individual superiority in making specific decisions and in doing certain jobs, he asked, "What does that leave for the average man to do? What becomes of his share in responsibility for his country's fate? What is there left for him to discuss? The *ultimate values* and the *ultimate choices* are *still everybody's business.*"

Discussion, research, rebuttal, *tolerant listening* to another's point of view, no matter how contra to one's own, is the theme which I want here to develop. I feel, as a teacher of speech, I am helping safeguard Democracy by devoting approximately three weeks of the semester to a discussion of topics which run the gamut from "Should Tipping Be Abolished?" to "Shall We Accept Refugees?" Instead of compelling youngsters to take Democracy in labelled lecture capsules, they here have an opportunity to *live it* in a healthy, exciting, honest environment. This does not mean that the function of the Social Studies teacher is thereby usurped. Nor does it mean that Speech classes become media for political harangue. It does mean that my students are learning what is *today* a pertinent lesson—how to present an idea, argue for it, *listen* to opposing argument, change conclusions based on sham and prejudice and develop a respect for what is true and decent.

The results I have gained are neither unique nor attributable to unusual personal talents. Teachers of Speech throughout the city, I am certain, are doing similar work with, in all likelihood, better results than I get with my students, overwhelmingly the non-academic type, from unenlightened homes; timid, inhibited girls, the quintessence of passivity; girls who before any discussion work is possible, need and get thorough speech diagnoses, corrective work and frequent opportunities to talk on "My Hobby" subjects, in order slowly to help them gain poise and confidence. They are the type whom The Misanthrope would give up as "Dumb Clucks who won't ever learn to think clearly on their feet in a distinct, well-enunciated audible manner." "If you try to teach them discussion," says he, "you may as well 'kiss the girls goodbye.' " However, these are girls in whom the believer in the inherent capacity of the average human being, when properly tapped, has great faith. It takes time, but the metamorphosis brings glowing satisfaction. It is nothing short of amazing, indeed, that these sheepish little third termers in three weeks argue with commendable dignity and comprehension on the following topics of their own choice. (How much more brilliant may the results be under superior conditions?)

[4] Chairman Speech Department — Queens College, N.Y.C., N.Y.

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Resolved that—

1. U. S. offer a haven to the German refugees.
2. Tipping should be abolished.
3. President Roosevelt run for a third term.
4. Large department stores are an injury to the country.
5. The government own and control telephone and telegraph lines.
6. Persecuted people in Germany be permitted to enter U. S.
7. That Home Relief should continue.
8. Child Labor be abolished.
9. Capital punishment be abolished.
10. Women should seek careers in business and professions.
11. Two features be shown at moving picture houses.
12. Mercy killings be legalized.
13. Homework be abolished.
14. High school education be increased to six years instead of customary four years.
15. Moving pictures are harmful to children.
16. Fear of punishment has a greater influence on human conduct than hope of reward.
17. War should be declared by popular vote.
18. C.I.O. is a better organization to join than A.F.L.
19. U. S. boycott Japan.
20. Palestine be given over to the Jewish people as a Fatherland.

DISCUSSIONS

1. Whether or not Father Coughlin should be permitted on the air.
2. Effects of dictatorship on U. S.
3. C.C.C. camps for girls.
4. Television.
5 Eight years of high school.
6. Shakespeare plays vs. modern play.
7. Socialized medicine.
8. Whom do you consider a candidate for the Academy Award and why?
9. Slums.
10. Rackets.
11. Causes of and cures for war.
12. Child marriage.

It is good for Democracy's health that these young girls visit libraries, work out research projects on their own initiative, question friends, relatives, parents, priests, rabbis on the subject at hand, make a determined effort to learn all they can and then express an opinion on it, an opinion which becomes the subject for public questioning, often incisive and penetrating; this, without tears, or unhealthy emotional upset.

Would that space permitted a stenographic report of the brilliant result in clear thinking which the three weeks brought. Pages of thrilling testimony would result. One would marvel at how a young Catholic girl, motivated by her own interest, went to Michael Williams of *Commonweal* to learn of his thoughts on Father Coughlin; at how a young Jewish girl in a discussion on "Should Jews Be Given Palestine?" said, "It is very unfair to throw the Arabs out of Palestine since they also claim that they have been the first to inhabit and develop the land according to their customs. What should we do with the Jews in Germany and in other Dictator Countries? I believe that the democratic nations should open their gates for these people," and so forth.

It is good for Democracy's health when an Italian girl, recently returned from two years in Italy, is able by convincing, mature argument, to point out Italy's shortcomings (despite great roads), to the conclusive satisfaction of even the most rabid rooter for Italian Fascism.

It is, in short, good for Democracy when everything Totalitarian takes a terrific verbal lambasting; when the pros and cons of C.C.C. and other government projects become subject for discussion; when a youngster can leave a class breathless with the following peroration, which she delivers with high emotional fervor, "Would you say that the American women would not abandon the purchase of silk stockings for mere sentiment? *Sentiment! The American woman does not want blood on her stockings!*"

Immediate questions arise:

1. What proof can you offer that these discussions have not resulted in a "pooling of ignorances" (as it has been called by one of our Speech leaders)?

2. Since, too, these problems are amongst the weighty enigmas of our time, how can you expect youngsters to cope with them in any satisfactory way?

3. What was the role of the teacher?

May I permit Dr. J. W. Studebaker, Federal Commissioner of Education, and one of the authors of *Forums for Young People*, Bulletin 1937, No. 25, to answer for me:

(a) "It must be remembered that students do not live in a vacuum. They necessarily take certain types of social action. It is also logical to inquire *at what time* later a person is likely to have the time, the trained guidance, the access to materials, and the relative disinterestedness to better pursue the study and discussion of these important matters."

(b) "One question that was in our minds can now be answered. Can high school students intelligently discuss topics relating to contemporary affairs?

[6] See Robert Allison's article in Feb. 1939 "Quarterly Journal of Speech" in which he makes the additional point that "Discussion has a hygienic value that is quite as important as many of its intellectual values. It often times serves as an emotional purgative that relieves the tensions which grip people who are dealing with elements that they cannot prove."

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"Probably not, if we are expecting them to present a solution to the problem, but decidedly "Yes" if the purpose is to develop a vivid interest, an attitude of seeking for the facts, and a real attempt to reach valid, if tentative conclusions based on these facts."

(c) "The forum with its specialized attention to the current controversial questions needs the *leadership* and *guidance* of the most skillful teachers (emphasis mine)—He does not fight for his position, oppose the introduction of any fact or material on some other side—He demonstrates that the purpose of the discussion is not to win converts but to increase understanding—He wants the whole experience in study and discussion to develop in the students the habit of independent choice-making."

Obviously, then, the Extremist who goes beyond guiding discussion along constructive lines, pointing out blatant errors in speech and content, acting as a catalytic agent by means of probing questions, is to be censured. My choice for ideal Discussion personality and technique is embodied in the person of Mr. Lyman Bryson whom one often meets on the radio these days.

May I quote Mr. Bryson once more in answer to the final blanket objection to discussion which says, "Discussion is Dangerous—Don't."

"When the democratic experiment was new in America, when our enthusiasm for it was fresh, we talked and argued endlessly about our political affairs. We were dangerous people in those days. The world was afraid of us. Out of America, people expected explosions to come, explosions that would rock the autocracies of Europe, very much as we expected a decade or so ago that the Bolsheviks of Russia would upset everything!"[6]

Certain conclusions may be evolved from the foregoing remarks.

As Superintendent Moskowitz has said, "We have always given lip-service to the belief that all that was necessary was to educate our citizens and democracy would sweep on. But now we have awakened to the knowledge that democracy is on the defensive. Our education, we find, was insufficient because it did not stimulate thinking about social relations," and if both Mr. Moskowitz and Mr. Ernst agree that *all students,* not merely those especially gifted in Debate, need a chance for real expression, *and*

If Democracy "assumes the right of the rank and file of folks to think and decide for themselves"[7] and,

If we believe with Mr. Joseph Sexton "in the liberties and responsibilities which our children must learn to assume if democracy is to endure in a changing world; that expression largely in speech, to a smaller degree in writing, is the most important activity, the most desirable skill to be developed in our pupils; 'that sounding brass or tinkling cymbals,' in speech or writing, which conforms to an elegant pattern while conveying an inelegant idea," is poor.[8]

Then, at the meeting at which the proposed amalgamation between Speech and English was discussed, the remarks of Professor O'Neill.[9] to the effect that speech training was necessary beyond the corrective stages, and more as a means of teaching expression in a social relationship, should have offered the major argument in behalf of Speech as an autonomous subject.

Finally, if we *admit* that free, intelligent, honest expression helps safeguard Democracy, then *All the Children* ought to be given the benefit of Discussion sessions conducted by a well-informed teacher of Speech.

CHARLES G. SPIEGLER.

Morris High School.

[6] In "The Principles and Methods of Discussion"—McBurney and Hance.
[7] Harrison Elliot, "The Why and How of Group Discussion."

[8] Feb. 1939 issue of HIGH POINTS.
[9] Chairman of Speech Department—Brooklyn College, N.Y.C., N.Y.

HIGH POINTS

MY EDUCATIONAL CREDO

Aim of Education

I believe that the aim of education is the complete adjustment of the individual to his desirable environment.

Objectives of Teaching

I believe that the process of adjustment requires the building of a strong vigorous body, the development of an alert mind, the preparation for one's honorable vocation, intelligent citizenship, and worthwhile leisure, and particularly the building of a sound ethical character.

Character

I believe that character refers not only to the possession of worthy ideals, such as courtesy, personal cleanliness, self reliance, self control, tolerance, consideration for others, and intellectual honesty, but also to what's more important, the will which persistently makes an effort to attain these desired qualities.

Scholarship

I believe that the accumulation of information is a very minor objective in education; the development of good citizenship and of

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personality and power through the formation of worthy habits, the stimulation of interests, the cultivation of tastes and the development of a sense of responsibility are of far greater importance.

False Standards

I believe that extraneous influences such as college entrance requirements, Regents' examinations and scholarships should not be permitted to dominate methods of teaching, nor the development of the curriculum.

Mathematics and Foreign Languages

I believe that tradition has overemphasized the value of mathematics and foreign languages. In the education of the future, at least an equally important place will be given to the social, physical and biological sciences, as well as to music, art and vocational subjects. Foreign language pupils should be encouraged to study one language for four years. As for mathematics, all students should take an introductory course of one year of general mathematics. Only those who are able and interested in this subject should be permitted to continue with advanced work in algebra, geometry and trigonometry.

Individuality

I believe that individuality is sacred. Our school should, therefore, make full provision for individual differences among the students. Special classes should be provided for our slow non-academic minded pupils, as well as an Honor School for the superior students.

Guidance

I believe that the justifiable emphasis on individual advising, vocational guidance and mental hygiene demands that all teachers should realize their duties and responsibilities in this field. This work must not be delegated solely to a few specials. Every teacher should be an understanding and sympathetic guide.

Homework

I believe that as the course of study cannot be mastered in the limited time devoted to classroom instruction, and as training in independent study is important, homework is necessary. This should be definitely assigned, properly motivated, useful in removing subject difficulties, reasonably short and stimulating.

Community Problems

I believe that in the education of growing boys and girls, the influence of the home must not be overlooked. For this reason, a Parents' Association is a vital factor in the school organization to serve as the connecting link between the school and the home. Also through committees of visiting teachers we must become better acquainted with the home conditions of our pupils and the problems of our community.

Discipline

I believe that discipline is valuable only if it is self-discipline and results in coöperative self-direction. Not fear, but intelligent understanding of his responsibilities should be the student's guide.

Out of School Conduct

I believe that conduct out of school is the best test of discipline in school.

Extra Curricular Activities

I believe that extra-curricular work not only develops natural gifts and talents but also socializes the individual and prepares him for the profitable and interesting use of leisure time. It should, therefore, be made an integral part of the school program to help both the quiet and sensitive student as well as the aggressive, boisterous extrovert.

Athletics

I believe that athletics, especially intramural sports, should be encouraged, because they stress the importance of health, hygiene and good sportsmanship.

School Morale

I believe that in the drive for efficiency of organization, or for results expressed in percentages, we must not sacrifice the morale nor the general happiness of the student body and the faculty.

School Atmosphere

I believe the general atmosphere of a school is an important educational factor in the ethical and spiritual growth of students. For this reason, a school should be attractive, reasonably quiet, pleasant and friendly, and teaching should be democratic and sympathetic in spirit.

Propaganda and Education

I believe that all controversial questions, including socialism, communism, naziism, and fascism, when pertinent to the lesson in hand, should be discussed in the classroom. The only exception to this rule is religion, because the subject is loaded with too much potential dynamite. In such discussions, as in all good teaching, the students should take the leading part. The teacher should act only as a guide. His contribution must be as impersonal and as unprejudiced as it is humanly possible to make it. In fact, in fairness to truth, the teacher may at times be obliged to play the part of the devil's advocate, and present arguments for the side with which he personally disagrees. Under no circumstances should he use his position for propagandizing.

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I believe that no reasonable expense should be spared in giving our growing generation the best education that is obtainable. Every dollar thus spent will earn untold spiritual dividends, and will also help to save millions in future expenditures for reformatories and prisons for housing juvenile and adult delinquents. However, it is undoubtedly true that thousands of dollars in our educational budget are wasted annually in every department of our school system. Every effort must be made not only to minimize but also to eliminate every possible form of educational waste.

GABRIEL R. MASON.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

TEACHING ENGLISH WITH AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS*

To the teacher of English, films, slides and records offer much that has been largely overlooked. Current films in theatres have indeed been extensively and ingeniously utilized. On the other hand, the relatively underdeveloped applications of these devices within the classroom itself are in many respects considerably more important.

Consider first the silent 16mm. teaching film. One of the perennial problems in teaching précis writing or any of the three types of composition has been the creation of strongly stimulating materials or situations for students to write about. A technique which contributes much toward overcoming this difficulty is to project an interesting short film as a basis for the written work. What films can be used? A few good ones dealing with literary history or personalities can be found in catalogues listed below. The writer has had more success, however, with the subjects in science, geography, and industry which are now available in almost every city high school.

If well chosen, they will not only motivate by arousing sharp interest, but will also provide vivid subject material of a sort to evoke the desired vocabulary choices and paragraph construction. For example, a film showing the making of steel might be excellent as a basis for exposition, but would be less suitable for description than a picturesque travel film. A film on the life of the salmon or bee, might serve either for description or imaginative narration. This type of composition procedure incidentally provides valuable carry-overs and correlations in other school subjects. It is particularly helpful in teaching low grade groups.

How does one plan such a lesson or unit? A wise beginning is to consult your school film librarian and select a film that is short and likely to be strongly interesting to your group. Project it for yourself to check it and choose material for a stimulating presentation. It is best to give the class advance hints on what to look for and then to make any remarks during the actual projection few and very brief.

An excellent type of composition procedure based on silent films is to have your class pretend that the film is to be equipped with sound. Ask them to write the needed narrative describing the highlights of the picture to the audience.

Films and slides are also valuable in vocabulary work. Have you ever taught a book like *Microbe Hunters* and found difficulty in explaining what yeast or fungi really are? To switch on a movie projector in the middle of a lesson for a few minutes is a simple matter, and a common biology film showing yeasts and moulds will do the job beautifully. A knowledge of the resources of your school and lantern slide library will often mean help where the dictionary fails.

Slides and films are especially valuable in games and drills to expand descriptive vocabulary. Project a slide or film containing an interesting and colorful collection of subjects. Then have your class list as many adjectives as possible to describe things seen on the screen. Adverbs, verbs, or nouns may equally well be called for. A prize mark for the student or students who get the best collection heightens enthusiasm. The large picture obtained by projection is vastly more satisfactory for these purposes than the small printed varieties.

Have you ever considered showing films of literary classics yourself, in class? Silent 16mm. films of "The Lady of the Lake" and sound films of "Oliver Twist", "Tom Sawyer" and other classics are available at moderate rentals. If you want silent dramatic films, however, remember that most are old and many obsolete. With classes mature enough to discount technical comparisons with Hollywood, much that is valuable can be gotten from such silents.

Dramatic films also offer enjoyable composition activities in the form of scenario writing. A glance at any of the numerous reprints of movie scenarios will give you an idea of the scenario form. Your class can plan a travel film of New York City, a picture on how to play basketball, or a similar short subject. Or it can have fun planning an adventure story in synopsis form for its favorite movie stars.

Your lantern slide projector has unique advantages in administering certain types of tests. A short grammar or punctuation test can be flashed onto the screen and then cut off instantly at the expiration of a time limit. A slide is more strongly legible than blackboard writing and can be prepared in less time than mimeographed sets of question papers. Particularly in précis work when the reading time should be accurately limited, this

* This article is another in a series devoted to audio-visual aids in teaching.

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type of test medium is useful.

Do you know how to make a typewritten slide? Simply take a piece of clear, colorless cellophane cut to lantern slide size and then enclose it in two slips of carbon paper, carbon in. Insert this in the typewriter, and leaving a suitable margin, type your material. Then remove the carbon paper and insert the cellophane slip between two glass cover slides. A single pair of glass covers, hinged at the bottom only, can be used for innumerable cellophane messages.

The use of phonograph records has been effectively discussed in a recent *High Points* article.[1] It may be added that the Harvard Film Service, Cambridge, Mass. offers a unique group of recorded poetry readings by modern masters such as Robert Frost, Vachel Lindsay and others of equal note. Such devices as the Speakophone and other recording instruments are especially valuable to the English teacher, in making records of outstanding reading or dramatic performances by students. In remedial speech work, they make it possible for students to hear and understand their own voice and speech defects.

If you are equipped to receive radio programs in your classroom, a postcard to the Columbia Broadcasting System will get you a copy of the annual American School of the Air program booklet. The National Broadcasting Company prints a monthly leaflet listing its programs of interest to schools. A number of excellent broadcasts are available from these networks, chiefly of value in literature and speech.

Visual Aids Catalogs

"1001", published by Educational Screen, 64 East Lake Street, Chicago, Ill.

Educational Film Catalog, H. W. Wilson Company, New York, N. Y.

Directory of U. S. Government Films, National Film Service, Washington, D. C.

Also free catalogs published by such commercial concerns as Victor Animatograph Corp., Davenport, Iowa; Bell and Howells Corp., 11 West 42nd Street, New York, N. Y.; Keystone View Company, Meadville, Pa., and Society for Visual Education, 327 South La Salle Street, Chicago, Ill.

Edward G. Bernard.
Long Island City High School.

DEAR TEACHER

We librarians have been tracking down 792's for two days. One of our teachers assigned topics on the theater to three of her classes, without forewarning us. Most of the books were out in circulation before we were aware of the mass assignment, so there is a delay in putting them on our Temporary Reference Shelf. We are sending for the lucky borrowers to urge them to return the desired volumes for the use of the anxious majority (who, incidentally, haven't been allowed very much time to complete their reports).

These pictorial notebook projects make us apprehensive. We'll have to watch carefully to be sure no one removes plates of the Globe Theater or Hints on Make-Up. Many of our pupils haven't money for illustrative material (even if they knew where they could buy pictures of 18th century wigs and Greek masks). The temptation to cut them from library books is strong. Or they trace them, leaving heavy pencil marks on the plates. Such mutilation of books is a serious offense against good citizenship in the library.

We've been trying to train our amateurs in research in giving reference. Oblivious of edition, volume, or page, they assume The Encyclopedia is adequate bibliographic data. Or, having a confusion of detail, they use an incorrect or inconsistent form. And though we know that children often accept as authoritative anything in print, as if the published word in itself had some magic virtue to command belief, we find difficulty in persuading them that newspaper clippings and periodicals have value as a source of information, even as books have.

We know there are always weak pupils who act as if their teacher gave them an assignment without any explanation at all. But lately we've been confronted by an increasing number of average students who haven't been given background for exploring particular topics. When an instructor, in the belief that he is encouraging independent research, goes no further than to mystify his class with "Can I Believe What I Think?", he is indeed posing a provoking question. His pupils can't use an index because they haven't even a vocabulary to work with.

Behold, then, the librarian in her role as teacher. She is willing to coöperate with you, and hopes that you will coöperate with her.

Irma Schweikart.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

A VISIT BY A COPENHAGEN HIGH SCHOOL INSPECTOR

During this past summer vacation, while supervising the W.P.A. summer schools, I was requested to escort Dr. Oluf Egerod, Inspector (Principal) of Bellahoj School of Copenhagen, Denmark, to New York City High School buildings. Since the visitor had only four weeks in the United States, he had endeavored to cram in as much activity and sight-seeing as possible and for that reason did not reach the Board of Education until the beginning of August, a few days before he was to set sail. At that time only nine buildings were being

[1] A. H. Lass and C. S. Steingart, *Recordings and the English Classroom*, February 1939.

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used for summer high school, and none of our own regular teachers were teaching classes. However, the visitor was interested in administration, plant and personnel, rather than in the teaching process as shown in our schools.

He was led through the Julia Richman High School building while the remedial project for secondary pupils who had failed was going on. He thought that it was splendid to have very small classes such as these, in order to give the pupils an opportunity to make up in the summer for their previous failures. When he told me that the Julia Richman building was too closely packed in a small place, I felt compelled to invite him to see a building in the suburbs, where a school is surrounded by a far larger piece of ground.

I telephoned to the teacher in charge of Jamaica High Summer School to make arrangements with the custodian of the building to have it open on the next Saturday afternoon. After lunch in my home, I took Dr. Egerod to the school, showing him how it looked from different points of view. He took great delight in the huge building in its picturesque setting, with a pool, gymnasia, auditorium, and the rifle range. He thought that the building was one of the finest high schools he had seen.

The interviews on school matters were not all one-sided. I asked many questions about the schools of Copenhagen. This great city of Denmark, of a population of little less than one million, has about 70,000 pupils in its public schools. The beginning age in elementary schools is seven and the compulsory school age ends at fourteen. In general, in Denmark, boys and girls are taught in separate classes. The average number of pupils per class is 31 in elementary school. But there are helping classes in which the number of children averages 16, so that the teaching may be more individual and adapted to children of slower learning power. He stated that the helping classes are so conducted that pupils return after two or three years to classes of normal progress.

A pupil who has made progress without retardation for five years in elementary school may take an entrance examination for Junior High School. This is a four year school, the termination of which is based on a public test known as the "Junior High School Examination." Success in this test permits entry into Senior High School or *Realklasse,* an extra year which qualifies pupils to apply for examination in such positions with the Post Office, Railway Offices, Public Offices, and so forth. Mathematics, German, and English, are some of the courses found in the Junior High School. Lately French has been added for some pupils. Those who graduate from Senior High School may enter the university if they are able financially to go. Provision is made for poor but brilliant students.

Many pupils, who leave school on completion of their fourteenth year, attend evening Continuation School from the ages of fourteen to twenty-five. Here they pursue such subjects as will fit them better in their work.

In the elementary schools, the teachers work 36 hours a week, but those between the ages of fifty-five and sixty work only 33 hours. Those over sixty years are required to work only 30 hours.

The teachers of the Senior High School, almost all of whom have studied at the University, work 27 hours a week. Dr. Egerod stated that he had a faculty of twenty-eight male teachers and twenty-five female teachers (besides two assistant inspectors or principals) without counting five "Vicars," who were heads of departments. Of course, there is a clerical staff to assist him. According to his figures, there is one teacher to twenty-eight pupils in high school.

Although education is free in the elementary schools, a fee from 2½ to 17½ Kronen a month is paid by high school pupils, according to the income of the parents. In larger families, a special allowance is made; and parents whose income is less than 3000 Kronen pay nothing.

The school over which Dr. Egerod presides is what we call an academic school. He thinks it is now too large because it has about 1600 pupils. There are three different academic courses which may be labelled thus: classical, modern language, and scientific. If a pupil fails in more than one subject, he is kept back in the entire grade.

His school, like all others in Copenhagen, has a Parents' Council of five members, of which two are chosen by the town councillors and the remaining three by the parents. Members of the Parents' Council may visit the school at any time. In addition, they have the responsibility of controlling and enforcing attendance of the children. They serve without pay.

Textbooks, note books, pens and pencils are free only in the elementary school.

Baths are free and compulsory in all schools and each child is supposed to have a bath at least once every two weeks. After gymnastic exercises, pupils receive a "moderate shower." When Dr. Egerod heard that most pupils in the New York City high schools received gymnastic instruction every day, he wished to know how we could arrange showers in the schools where we had almost 10,000 pupils. I had to tell him that we could not do it.

Copenhagen schools have a free lunch problem just as other large city schools have. Their luncheons are either a hot dish or vegetables and fruit with bread and butter. During the winter of 1934 and 1935, 7,500 pupils daily had dinner in school and about 830,000 meals were served in that year.

For a school population of about 70,000, 23 doctors and 16 nurses are in constant attendance. Free dental attention is given in all school clinics. There are eleven clinics, six of which are directly

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attached to schools which need this attention the most.

The listener on the two visits made by Dr. Egerod came away with the impression that the capital city of Denmark is making a sincere, highly laudable effort to give a well rounded education to the children of Copenhagen.

JACOB MANN.
Supervisor W.P.A. Summer Schools.

"MR. ICHTHYOLOGIST WILL ADDRESS THE BIOLOGY CLUB ON . . ."

Teachers in charge of extra-curricular activities have often been faced with the problem of making a rush announcement of one kind or another to the student body. Those of us who are in schools possessing central loudspeaking equipment have an easy solution to the problem. Other teachers in schools not so equipped resort to other methods. Mimeographed circulars to official teachers, announcements on departmental and other special bulletin boards, assembly announcements and many other schemes are frequently used for the purpose of informing the student body that a special program is being planned by a certain club, that members are wanted for the library squad, that nominations for G.O. or S.O. offices are being called, that a tennis tournament is about to start or that some special extra-curricular activity is being planned.

We, at the High School of Science, have adopted a plan suggested by Messrs. Kurzband and Subarsky of our faculty. The Student Organization publishes a weekly mimeographed bulletin which is placed in every teacher's letter-box and on every school and classroom bulletin board late on Friday afternoon. The publication, the "S.O. NEWS" is read in every classroom during the S.O. section period on Monday. Items requiring discussion are taken up at this time. Students have frequent opportunity to consult the posted copies of the "S.O. NEWS" during the week.

The mechanics of publishing such a bulletin are very simple. A teacher or pupil desiring to place an item in the forthcoming issue of the "S.O. NEWS" places his notice in a special box fastened on the S.O. Office door. Copy is accepted up to 9 o'clock on Friday morning. A stencil of the various notices is prepared. The bulletin is mimeographed on a heavy-bond gold-colored paper with a green printed masthead (green and gold are our school colors). The mimeographed "S.O. NEWS" is distinctive enough in appearance to be easily recognized by interested individuals.

ABRAHAM RASKIN.
Bronx High School of Science.

THEME-CENTERING THE QUADRATIC

It would be interesting to visitors of the New York World's Fair, who in their high school days grappled with the several methods to solve quadratics algebraically, to see how in this year of progress one method suffices and is thoroughly painless. There is no novel element in this method for the central theme is the rigorous application of a well known operation to all quadratics. I have used it as a review device in my algebra classes at the New York Evening High School. Its simplicity and especially the fact that it foregoes breaking up quadratics into groups has been appreciated by the mature students.

Most textbooks divide quadratics into two groups, the incomplete and the complete, despite the neatness with which graphic analysis exposes the truly incidental character of this division. Three distinct methods are required, namely, —factoring, completing the square, and the formula. One of the broad objectives in the teaching of mathematics is to help the student grasp the principle of equivalence. Nevertheless, according to customary procedure we break up quadratics superficially and impose the burden upon the student to inspect each quadratic so as to utilize the easier or more appropriate method. Quadratics, as will be shown here, compose one group in point of solution by one method.

Beginning then, with the incomplete quadratic, the first here shown is solved by taking the square root of both sides, and the second type is treated by factoring. Let us solve both by factoring:

(1) $ax^2 = c$; $x^2 - c/a = 0$; $(x - \sqrt{c/a})(x + \sqrt{c/a}) = 0$; $x = +\sqrt{c/a}$.

Factoring a binomial difference of squares may be applied with help of a minus parenthesis to an equation having imaginary roots:

(2) $x^2 + c = 0$; $x^2 - (-)c = 0$; $(x - \sqrt{-c})(x + \sqrt{-c}) = 0$; $x = \pm\sqrt{-c}$.

The other type of incomplete quadratics is solved by factoring the common term:

(3) $ax^2 + bx = 0$; $x(ax + b) = 0$; then $x = 0$ and $-b/a$.

When teaching the complete quadratic we advise factoring:

(4) $x^2 - 6x + 5 = 0$; $(x - 5)(x - 1) = 0$; $x = 5$ and 1.

If the equation is not obviously factorable, completing the square may be utilized. Why not interpret completing the square as a clever dodge to render an obdurate quadratic factorable?—

(5) $x^2 - 6x + 1 = 0$; Considering the first two terms only x^2—$6x$, let us add 9 which is half the coefficient of x squared, thus $x^2 - 6x + 9 = 0$. Now subtract the original equation (5) from this, the difference is 8. Let us call this particular quantity the "factor difference". Now we

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write the original equation in its *factorable* form: $x^2 - 6x + 9 = 8$. Solving:

$$(x-3)^2 = 8;\ [(x-3) - \sqrt{8}]\ [(x-3) + \sqrt{8}] = 0;\ x = 3 \pm \sqrt{8}.$$

A complete quadratic having imaginary roots is handled the same way:

(6) $x^2 - 6x + 10 = 0$. Add half the coefficient of x squared to one side; $x^2 - 6x + 9 = 0$ from which original equation (6) is subtracted leaving a factor difference of -1. Writing the new equation and solving $x^2 - 6x + 9 = -1$; $(x-3)^2 + 1 = 0$; $(x-3)^2 - (-1) = 0$; $[(x-3) - \sqrt{-1}]\ [(x-3) + \sqrt{-1}] = 0$; $x = 3 \pm \sqrt{-1}$.

The foregoing procedure on the standard quadratic with literal coefficients will provide the formula:

(7) $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$; $x^2 + \frac{b}{a}x + c/a = 0$; $x^2 + \frac{b}{a}x + b^2/4a^2 = 0$

from which the equation proceeding is subtracted leaving the factor difference $b^2/4a^2 - c/a$. The equation in its factorable form is $x^2 + \frac{b}{a}x + b^2/4a^2 = \frac{b^2}{4a^2} - \frac{c}{a}$.

Transposing, $(x + b/2a)^2 - \frac{b^2-4ac}{4a^2} = 0$; Factoring as a binomial difference of squares

$$\left[(x + \frac{b}{2a}) + \frac{\sqrt{b^2-4ac}}{2a}\right]\left[(x + \frac{b}{2a}) - \frac{\sqrt{b^2-4ac}}{2a}\right] = 0;\ x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2-4ac}}{2a}.$$

The derivation of the formula should be interpreted as the symbolic representation of the factor method of solution, as regards the present discussion. We are not obliged to sell the pupil on the formula as the *best* method since any other method by itself mistakenly has been regarded as inadequate to handle all cases. The factor difference helps to analyze the nature of the roots as does the radicand $\sqrt{b^2-4ac}$. A minus factor difference means imaginaries; if a perfect square the roots are rational, otherwise irrational.

The reader will find, if he has not already guessed, that the square root method may be applied just as consistently, i.e., by completing the square and taking the square root of both sides. In some respects it seems simpler than factoring. It has one objection, not intrinsic, but which is based on the meaning of a quadratic. The majority of quadratics are products of such binomials as $(x-c_1)$ $(x-c_2)$. Factoring would be generally the more logical method to analyze the product of two unequal quantities.

When presenting this method, I first would review factoring a binomial difference of squares; nextly, render acceptable the notion of a number whose square root is irrational as lending itself to the same treatment as a number which is a perfect square. A rigorously applied operation be it factoring or square root impresses on the student the value of a single instrument expertly handled and which at the same time makes unnecessary classification of quadratics, and multiple methods.

JOSEPH ALBIN.
New York Evening High School.

PLACEMENT COUNSELING FOR OUT-OF-SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT

The Regents' Inquiry makes the indictment that the majority of students leave high school "without having finished any program designed to make them ready for out-of-school activities, and they flounder with extraordinary aimlessness and lack of understanding in their efforts to adjust themselves to out-of-school conditions."[1]

If this situation is to be remedied, students should have guidance which concerns itself primarily with their out-of-school adjustment. Such is placement counseling, which, rightly considered, does not mean placement in a job only, but that counseling which helps a student to plan for further training, which advises him about scholarships and jobs, acquaints him with community resources for recreation, health and welfare, and which also helps him to size up his own abilities and relate these to vocational opportunities.

Complete programs of guidance should include the following areas, according to Commissioner John W. Studebaker, of the U. S. Office of Education, namely:

"1. Individual inventory.
2. Occupational Information.
3. Counseling.
4. Exploration of training opportunities.
5. Placement.
6. Follow-up."[2]

and all these areas are included, likewise, in the aims of guidance as set forth by the National Vocational Guidance Association.

For guidance to be valuable there should be a goal, and in any counseling, placement is that tangible area which should not be omitted. Of what avail is individual inventory, occupational information and training, or any amount or kind of guidance, if the individual student is not assisted in placing himself where he can function realistically?

The need for placement counseling to insure satisfactory out-of-

[1] Spaulding, Francis T. *High School and Life*, The Regents' Inquiry, 1938, McGraw-Hill Book Co., pp. 92-93.

[2] Studebaker, John W. "The Occupational Information and Guidance Service: A Report of Progress." Occupations, Apr. 1939, p. 588.

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school adjustment is implied in the Regents' Inquiry criticism that the most obvious reasons why girls and boys flounder in their first contacts with out-of-school problems are because "The schools have not shown them how or where to look for employment. . . . The schools have not shown them how or where to go on learning. . . . The schools have paid little attention to their varying opportunities for recreation and leisure, and their varying problems of getting along with family and neighbors and community."[3]

The Regents' Inquiry, further, concludes, on the basis of the guidance programs reported by sixty-two academic high schools and visits by the Inquiry staff to these schools, that *"nine-tenths of the academic high schools assume no active concern for their pupils' vocational adjustment when they leave school."*[4]

The fairness of this statement, based on the sampling indicated, might be questioned, yet all counselors and teachers interested in student welfare should be concerned with the need for counseling for out-of-school adjustment.

To bring some measure of assurance to any who may be unduly depressed by the picture of thousands of "floundering" students, and to inform those who may not be aware that the New York City High Schools are concerned with out-of-school adjustment of students, it is fitting to report that there are at present functioning in our senior high schools, under Mr. Charles M. Smith, Director of the Division of Guidance and Placement, thirty-two placement counselors, working under license as "Placement and Investigation Assistant." The following are the figures for some of their counseling activities for the year, which are to be included in the 1938-9 annual report of Mr. Smith, viz.:

Potential drop-outs interviewed	5,554
Drop-outs placed in employment	865
Potential drop-outs kept in school	1,707
Potential drops-outs transferred to other schools	1,597
Graduates interviewed	10,837
Graduates placed in employment	3,106
Pupils placed in part-time employment	3,926

This is concrete evidence, surely, of real concern for the welfare of our students, and of acceptance of the importance of placement conseling for out-of-school adjustment.

PAULINE R. STRODE.
James Monroe High School.

[3] Spaulding, Francis T. *High School and Life*, The Regents' Inquiry, 1938, p. 176.
[4] Ibid, p. 173.

TYPEWRITING AND THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Within the last eight years many inquiries, reports and recommendations have been made concerning the Junior High School Curriculum followed by many substitutions and omissions in the courses of study—some good and others not quite so good. Right now some of us are concerned about the proposed changes in the so-called commercial course. The study of shorthand was taken out, no doubt, rightfully so. It is an intricate science presupposing a fairly comprehensive command of English and it proved to be much above the average Junior High School intelligence, particularly since the boys and girls placed in the commercial course were on the whole the students of a lower intelligence. Moreover, shorthand, unless immediately put to use, is easily lost and forgotten. Bookkeeping was taken out. It, too, is unquestionably based on principles and concepts beyond the scope and experience of the average pupil in the Junior High School and, as in the case of the shorthand, would not be apt to be of any immediate value to the student.

The latest publication "Report and Recommendations of the Committee on Junior High Schools," published by the Board of Education, makes the following statement: "Commercial and vocational skills should be postponed until pupils are more mature when these skills can be learned more efficiently in far less time and with more purpose." True enough, but then does it necessarily follow that there is no commercial subject which can profitably be learned in the 9th year? Well, how about typewriting?

No doubt, those who know anything at all about the subject, will agree that typewriting is a skill which cannot be acquired on the job. As for the lapse of time between the Junior High School and Job Placement, let us not forget that typewriting can be and is of personal value to the pupil—there is the typing of school projects, reports, school paper, notes, typing for teachers, occasional typing jobs for the school office, for the home. And as for its being learned more efficiently the more mature the student—teachers who have taught it in the Junior High Schools, Senior High Schools and private Business Colleges have found that the younger the pupils the greater their enthusiasm for the machine and the greater their eagerness to learn—which are more than a match for the larger seriousness of purpose of the older students.

But even if we should choose to disregard the vocational skill-value and exploratory value of typewriting, let us not forget that at present typewriting is one of the very few subjects in the Junior High School Curriculum (*shops not excepted*) that helps to develop desirable work habits. It calls for focalization of

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consciousness upon a combination of movements responding to visual stimulus; it calls for concentration (a striking contrast to habits of inattention and dawdling acquired in some classes); it stresses individual effort, self-activity; it helps to cultivate satisfaction and pride in work that is real and tangible. Moreover, typewriting is probably the only subject that lends itself to a natural correlation with every other subject in the curriculum. Finally, typewriting is one of the best means to help perfect and increase the command of the most important tool of all learning—ENGLISH—vocabulary, spelling, punctuation, syllabication, not to mention all the possibilities of carefully chosen typewriting material that has a definite literary and cultural content.

For all the above-mentioned reasons and others too numerous to mention, from the point of view of a teacher who during the course of a school day comes in contact with 200 and more pupils and who is primarily interested in their welfare and happiness and only secondarily in subject matter, I maintain that typewriting should not only be retained in the 9th year commercial course, but that it belongs on every program of every 9th year pupil, regardless of the course of study and that where there is no room on the program it may be deemed advisable to do away with home periods, study periods and even so-called social activity periods and to put typewriting in their place.

MARCIA C. ROSENBERG
Montauk Jr. High School.

VISUAL AIDS AND THE ENGLISH TEACHER

Today, as never before, teachers are concerning themselves with the need for visual instruction. The English teacher is, and rightfully should be, tremendously concerned with any techniques which may be used to stimulate an interest in books and in correct—and, if possible—in creative expression. For some years, I, like others in my profession, have been experimenting with different types of visual aids. In the following remarks, I should like briefly to refer to a few of my personal experiences with visual materials.

When one thinks of an English teacher, one usually thinks at once of the reading of good books. The question arises: — "How can one stimulate boys and girls to a greater interest in worth-while books?" One way that I have found effective is through the use of pseudonyms. On large cards, I print the pen names of outstanding authors, as, for example, Boz, Curver Bell, Ik Marvel, Yellowplush, and Elia. Under each name I print a large question mark. These cards remain in my English room until my students are quite curious. Then we have a discussion of these authors and their books. The results of this method have usually been excellent.

I have a large collection of pictures illustrating famous books. These I use in numerous ways, one of which is to employ them as a point of departure for dramatizations. After studying, for example, the illustrations made for such a book as *The Prince and the Pauper*, my class discusses just why certain scenes were chosen for pictorial presentation. This leads to an intensive study of the important dramatic moments in the story, and eventually to the selection of all of the scenes in the novel which seem worthy of dramatization. In one of my classes, the students not only re-wrote the entire novel as a play, but also proceeded to give their play a "public" performance—for their teacher and the Chairman of the English department! While not all of this interest, of course, was induced by the pictures, I do believe that they played a vital part in assisting my students to visualize the background of the story and to arouse in them a greater sympathy for the characters.

The English teacher can take several lessons from the practices of motion-picture producers. One technique which is most effective is that of the preview. I have used this method occasionally with rather good results. On one occasion, for example, I placed on view in my room a number of excellent, if rather gruesome, pictures illustrating the tales of Poe. Under each picture I had printed a few exciting comments. The children wer permitted to read these remarks. Then the pictures were removed. A few days later, copies of Poe's *Tales* were placed in the hands of my students. As a result, the children were all eager to find out what had actually happened in the case of the "Pit and the Pendulum," in "The Gold Bug" and so forth.

Every child loves a birthday party. Why not have one for famous authors? On a few occasions, I have given such worthies as Shakespeare, Dickens, Mark Twain, a party. I usually start the party by having a student read a telegram (blank supplied by Western Union!) congratulating the author on his birthday. Then the class sees pictures of the author, of scenes from his life, and of characters from his books. Naturally, all of this is strictly limited by your supply of pictures. But most English teachers do own quite a number, and certainly every English teacher can give a party for Shakespeare. Haven't we all post cards showing Stratford-on-Avon, and haven't we all fine pictures of his famous characters?

The radio is ever alert to arouse the curiosity of its vast audience. Why can't we? One game that all children love is the quiz game. With the aid of several sets of cards, each card bearing a literary question, I am able to provide such a game. The cards are distributed, the class is divided into teams, and the fun begins. While the game could be played without

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cards, I have found that the visual appeal of the cards helps students to retain more effectively titles of books and names of authors.

Visual education in its broadest sense includes anything which instructs through being seen. For this reason, I do not hesitate to include dramatizations as a means of visual instruction. A game which I find amuses children is one in which groups of students act out, successively, scenes from famous stories. The class has to guess which story is being suggested. On the occasions when I have tried this device, I have been delighted with the interest of the children.

On one memorable occasion the program included the balcony scene from *Romeo and Juliet,* the scene from *The Count of Monte Cristo,* in which the Abbé confides to Edmond Dantes the secret of the treasure, the incident in *Oliver Twist* in which Oliver asks for more, the first encounter of Lucie Manette with her poor benighted father in *A Tale of Two Cities* and at least a dozen more equally exciting moments from great books.

Children love to draw and sketch. Sometimes I allow each child to draw one picture to illustrate a book. Sometimes, when the entire class has been delving into travel literature, I have each student trace on the board the itinerary of the travels of the author of his book. Subsequently the student reports on the adventures of the author pointing out on his map each important port of call. My students have often surprised me, after such a lesson, with their erudition concerning towns and countries in odd places of the globe.

So far, I have been discussing some ways of stimulating interest in books through visual aids. But visual instruction can stimulate composition work, vocabulary studies, and remedial reading as well. For example, if you wish to encourage your students to write an original story, you might try placing, on the bulletin board, the first few paragraphs of a "Thriller." The class can then be invited to complete the story, and the best story can be given an award.

Good usage can be stimulated by means of posters. I have a picture of an owl under which is printed the slogan, "Be Wise. Use Good English." Little children like this poster, and much can be done with it. For one thing, children can be induced to make posters of their own, each one indicating the correct use of a word, the correct spelling of a "demon," or a new word to re-place a much worn one.

Older children respond very well to pictures which illustrate the origins of words. I have some sets of pictures—prepared by students—which illustrate some particularly interesting words. For example, one picture shows a beggar receiving a piece of bread from a passer-by. This illustrates the origin of the word bribe, which originally meant a scrap of bread, and which today, unfortunately, has no such modest meaning. Another picture depicts a small boat drawing near the shore. This illustrates the word arrive, which originally meant coming to shore.

In connection with remedial reading, I have found that visual aids are especially helpful. In addition to our trusty blackboard, I add the use of flash cards, and, best of all, the projector. By projecting on a screen, in a darkened room, the new words of a lesson, I find that the reading process is stimulated. I sometimes flash sentences on the projector for a minute at a time, and then ask the children to tell we what they have read. This method helps increase the speed of reading of slow readers. "Movies," too, help to encourage slow readers. I recently showed a remedial reading class a film which explained cormorant fishing. Then there followed a short silent reading lesson on the same subject. Increased interest and understanding on the part of the students were evident.

There are as many techniques for improving the English lesson through visual appeals as there are interested teachers. The few I have mentioned are merely some that I have used with a certain degree of success. Without doubt each teacher could add a long list of his own. I wish I were privileged to see some of those lists!

DOROTHY BYRNS
John Adams High School.

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND NOTES

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH CHANGES CONVENTION DATE TO AGREE WITH ADVANCED THANKSGIVING HOLIDAY

The twenty-ninth annual meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English, originally announced in HIGH POINTS for the week end of November 30, has because of President Roosevelt's break with tradition on the Thanksgiving holiday, been put forward a week to November 23-25. The convention this year will be held in New York City, with the Hotel Pennsylvania as headquarters and the Hotel New Yorker as an auxiliary meeting-place.

"Unifying the English Program for the Individual" is the convention theme chosen by Miss Essie Chamberlain of the Oak Park (Illinois) High School, president of the Council. Every section of the country will be represented on the program.

Dr. William H. Kilpatrick, widely known educational leader; Professors Harlan Hatcher of Ohio State University, Allardyce Nicoll of Yale University, Walter Barnes of New York University, and Harry Morgan Ayres of Co-

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lumbia University; Dr. Louise Rosenblatt, Brooklyn College; Mrs. Letitia Raubicheck, director of speech improvement in the New York City schools; Dr. Hughes Mearns of New York University; Dr. Wilfred Eberhart, University of Chicago; and Dr. Ruth Strang, Teachers College, Columbia University, are some of the educators who will take part in the meeting. Among the writers who will speak are Pearl Buck, Marjorie Kinnan Rawlings, Babette Deutsch, Date Seredy, Wilfred Bronson, and Joseph Auslander. Others to be heard are Dr. George Gallup, director of the American Institute of Public Opinion; Dr. Stephen P. Duggan, director of the Institute of International Relations, and Barrett Clark of the Dramatists' Guild of America.

Language and Semantics, Social Bases of Composition, Standards for Motion Pictures and Newspapers, Educational Radio in Action, International Relations, and Content and Procedure for Gifted Pupils are a few of the topics on which conferences will be held. Problems of local associations will be discussed at a special meeting and at the state representatives' breakfast. The National Association of Journalism Directors and the College Conference on English in the Central Atlantic States will hold sessions during the convention.

Dr. Dudley Miles, Evander Childs High School, New York City, is the representative of the New York City Association in general charge of the meeting. Local committees have made arrangements for sightseeing trips, visits to museums, a buffet supper and other entertainments, and attendance at the theatres. Any who are interested may attend the convention whether or not they are members of the National Council of Teachers of English. Teachers of English in the senior high schools who would like to serve on the Convention Publicity Committee, should communicate immediately with

JESSE GRUMETTE
Abraham Lincoln High School.

TEACHER-PUPIL INQUIRY IS LAUNCHED BY ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON READING

A teacher-pupil inquiry into the interests, needs and problems of young people of secondary school age, is being undertaken by the newly-formed Advisory Committee on the Study of Supplementary Reading, it has been announced.

A complaint of long standing among teachers has been the lack of interesting, vital publications for young adults—for the 'teen age boy and girl. The Committee feels that before this dearth of satisfactory supplementary reading matter can be remedied, the interests, motives and purposes of the young people in their current reading must first be accurately ascertained and better understood. This is the basic objective of the Committee and its teacher-pupil inquiry. Through the cooperation of *Youth Today*, the national magazine for young people published in New York City, printed questionnaire material designed to facilitate the sending in of project experiences and conclusions, has been sent to representative teachers in the nation's 25,000 high schools. Teachers are urged to work with their pupils in developing this material and to send reports of their findings to the Committee's research associate, Frederick L. Keefe, who makes his headquarters in Room 900, at 95 Vanderbilt Avenue, New York City.

Members of the Committee include: Ida A. Jewett, head of the English Department, Teachers College, Columbia University; Caroline Zachary, research director, Progressive Education Association; Max J. Herzberg, principal, Weequahic High School, Newark, N. J.; Violet Edwards, Educational Director, Institute for Propaganda Analysis; Paul Witty, Professor of Education, Northwestern University; Robert M. Bear, Department of Psychology, Dartmouth College; Marquis E. Shattuck, Director, Language Education Department, Detroit Public Schools; Sidonie M. Gruenberg, Director, Child Study Association; Harrison C. Lyseth, Director of Secondary Education, Department of Education, State of Maine; Katherine E. Wheeling, State College for Teachers, Albany, N. Y.; Walter Barnes, School of Education, New York University; Ward H. Green, Director of English, Tulsa Public Schools; R. B. Cunliffe, Associate Professor of Education, Rutgers University; Emit Duncan Grizzell, Professor of Secondary Education, University of Pennsylvania; B. H. Darrow, director, American School of the Air; Charles Swain Thomas, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University; and G. Robert Koopman, Department of Public Instruction, Lansing, Mich.

HIGH LIGHTS AT THANKSGIVING PROGRAM OF NATIONAL COUNCIL TEACHERS OF ENGLISH AT HOTEL PENNSYLVANIA

CONVENTION THEME: *Unifying the English Program for the Individual.*

OPENING SESSION: Frederick H. Bair, Superintendent of Bronxville Public Schools.

GENERAL SESSION: *Literature and Human Values. Development of Personality through Theatre and Film* by Professor Allardyce Nicoll of Yale University.

ELEMENTARY READING: *People in my Books* by Kate Seredy, author of *The Good Master* and *The White Stag.*

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS: Dr. Stephen P. Duggan, Director of the Institute of International Relations.

CREATIVE WRITING: *The Folk Basis of Literary Communication* by Benjamin A. Botkin, Folklore Editor, Federal Writer's Project.

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DRAMA: *Everyone Wants an Ideal Play*, by Barrett H. Clarke, Dramatists' Guild of America.

COLLEGE: Howard Mumford Jones of Harvard University.

READING: *The Improvement of Reading of the Average and Superior Student* by Professor Ruth Strang of Columbia University.

SPEECH: *English and Speech Cooperating* by Commissioner Herman Cooper of New York State Department of Education.

COMPOSITION: *The Reader's Expectations* by Professor Lennox Gray of Columbia University.

MOTION PICTURES AND NEWSPAPERS: *Using them as Vehicles for Teaching Critical Thinking* by Violet Edwards of the Institute for Propaganda Analysis.

RADIO: *The Role of Television in Education* by Franklin Dunham, Educational Director of National Broadcasting Company.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES: *Teachers in a Democracy Necessarily Provide for them*, by Professor William H. Kilpatrick.

ANNUAL BANQUET: Professor Harry Morgan Ayres of Columbia University will speak on *American English*.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL: *Life Lines in Language Work* by H. R. Driggs of New York University.

SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL: *The Teacher Questions the Psychologists*, T. R. McConnell of the University of Minnesota and Dr. Paul Witty of Northwestern University.

JOINT MEETING WITH THE COLLEGE CONFERENCE IN ENGLISH IN THE CENTRAL ATLANTIC STATES, Karl Holzknecht of New York University, Sec.

JOINT MEETING WITH THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF JOURNALISM DIRECTORS: *News in the Making* by George Gallup, American Institute of Public Opinion.

The Literary Aspects of Journalism by Captain William E. Haskell of the New York *Herald Tribune*.

ENGLISH IN VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS led by Principal Franklin J. Keller of the Metropolitan Vocational High School.

ANNUAL LUNCHEON: *Regional Literature of the South* by Marjorie Kinnan Rawlings.

CITY WIDE HIGH SCHOOL ATHLETIC TROPHIES FOR GIRLS

The two Girls' Branch, Public Schools Athletic League All Round City Trophies for high schools are being awarded for the year 1939 as follows:

CATHARINE S. LEVERICH TROPHY competed for by high schools with a registration of 2500 girls and over, awarded to Jamaica High School.

EGERTON L. WINTHROP TROPHY competed for by high schools with a registration of 2000 girls and under, awarded to Port Richmond High School.

These trophies are awarded annually to those high schools having the greatest percentage of girls, qualifying for All Round Athletic Medals, based on the number of girls on register.

High Schools with a registration of between 2000 and 2500 girls chose the class under which they wished to compete.

EMILY O'KEEFE DALY
Executive Secretary

REVIEWS

NEW YORK PANORAMA; AMERICAN GUIDE SERIES. RANDOM HOUSE

We have here the reverse of the truism that visitors generally see more of a city than the natives, especially if the city be New York. Although this book was ostensibly written for sale to the expected millions of visitors to the Worlds Fair, (comes the Peace . . .), they will undoubtedly be too busy rushing hither and yon to appreciate its merits.

And merits they are, as those of us born and bred in this city will readily testify. The book's true worth will be appreciated most keenly by natives of the metropolis, who will be willing to allow their reputation to stand or fall by this testimony. That is no mean tribute to pay to a book—that it stands as an objective characterization of a city with the variations and hues and facets of our own, to be enjoyed by outsiders and accepted by the subjects as a fair appraisal.

The job of doing a Middletown of New York, the epitome of transition at any time, and to carry that back to its birth and forward the World of Tomorrow, was a challenge to the talents of the Lynds at their best. It was done in this instance by the Federal Writers Project of the W.P.A., in a manner which reflects credit on that organization, and its staff, which must have remarkable ability to produce such a smooth collective effort, representing a cross-section of talents.

The subjects treated are grouped under Natural Setting, History, Nationalities, Negroes, Speech, Literature, Art, Architecture, Classical Music, the Theatre, Radio, Sports, Press, Labor, Housing, Government, Social Welfare, Education and the Worlds Fair of 1939. Despite the abundance of material, the arrangement and the indexing are so clear as to make the book useful either for a single reading or for easy reference. There are numerous photographs to illuminate the text by glimpses of all sides of New York in all kinds of moods.

Most important in a work of this kind is the perspective of the writers, which shines through every line as persons who know and love the city. They have grown with it in such a way as to know its blemishes and rough spots,

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which they unhesitatingly uncover. There is no shying off ugliness and crime, civic corruption or scandal; nor is there discreet ignoring of labor strife, or overcrowded schools, misshapen slums or bloated wealth; but there is pride in achievement and progress, and an awareness of their social origin and nature, and a stressing of what is needed to keep them growing. This book belongs in all our personal and school libraries.

ABRAHAM TAUBER.

Bronx High School of Science.

TEACHING ENGLISH IN HIGH SCHOOLS

By E. A. Cross and E. Carney. Macmillian, $2.75.

If you are fresh from teacher's college, or just about to enter teaching, this tepid and colorless treatment of the teaching of English is going to leave you cold and, in many respects, misinformed. For while it seems to touch, with a certain modest finality, on all phases of subjects you are likely to teach, it is, in actuality, far removed from the practical exigencies of daily teaching, especially in a large city school. Crammed to the very hilt with "practical" suggestions, copiously embellished with bibliographical data, its message is neither clear nor compelling. Our contention is that every particle of methodology must somehow draw its strength and validity from the ever-present consciousness, in the minds of the authors, of a classroom with forty or more reluctant or indifferent pupils who must be taught the arts of communication and appreciation in definite temporally limited units. Whatever is not firmly rooted in these conditions fails to come home to the teacher, no matter how plausibly proposed or stated. And there is not enough awareness in this volume of the enormity of the problems that face the teacher of English. It is true, of course, that the authors manage to cover everything from grammar to radio, but hardly in such a way as to prove especially helpful to the classroom teacher.

This is, in many respects, a rather strange text. It is thoroughly up-to-date. It touches upon many crucial and current problems. And yet, reading it leaves one utterly unmoved and not particularly well prepared to do anything that seems likely to solve these matters. Partly, this may be explained by the conspicuous lack of "lift" or inspiration either in the style or the attitude of the authors. They conceive the teaching of English as a serious bit of business meriting the careful and sustained interest of all self-respecting practitioners of the art of teaching. But the manifold challenges, the rare and poignant joys, the frequent frustrations, the bitterness and despair that make up the teacher's life, that give purpose and firmness to his work: of these there is little recognition. And it is precisely because the book speaks only to the head and not to the heart of the teacher that it seems so aloof and so imperfectly correct.

It is our sad duty to record that this latest addition to the reference shelf lacks the essential scope and depth we have a right to expect from those who don the mantle of leadership. A few scrawny pages on Remedial Reading (probably the knottiest problem we face), no treatment of the non-academically-minded pupil (estimated at about twenty percent of the school population), a hazy reference to propaganda (the study of which is becoming recognized as an inescapable part of the English course)—how can we condone such omissions or lack of perspective in a text which comes to light at a time when every honest teacher is attempting to solve these same problems according to his own feeble lights? It is little short of distressing then to find no thorough and vigorous handling of these problems in the latest pronouncement on the subject. The matters of punctuation, spelling, paragraphing, have been treated at length and with great competence before. What is to be gained by flaccid reiteration? Ought it not be the dominant purpose of another text at this time to turn its attention to the unsolved problems that plague the teachers, instead of indulging in this pontifical didling? What? No treatment of sentence structure, the lyric, the sonnet, the novel, the essay—the bread and butter of the profession? By all means, a very thorough and detailed handling of these basic matters. But an equally conscientious fronting of other threats equally as potent as the boy's inability to spell correctly or his failure to respond to Edna St. Vincent Millay.

A. H. LASS.

YOU DON'T SAY

By Alfred H. Holt. Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

This is an extremely sensible and sane attempt to arrive at some clear concept of what is and what ought to be the correct pronunciation of over one thousand "demons." Mr. Holt's treatment of the whole problem of orthoëpy is refreshingly frank and unconventional. "I plead," he says, "for still more realism in the recognition of the speech habits of millions of Americans who, admittedly, never went to Harvard, but who have had some education, and wish to speak correctly and at the same time unaffectedly."

The most striking fact that emerges from a perusal of this volume is the lack of harmony that prevails in the highest lexicographic circles. What poor struggling examinees and examiners are to do in the face of the many "3-3" and "4-2" decisions of the experts, it is difficult to say. But one thing we

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can learn from even a cursory view of these expert vagaries and disagreements is humility and tolerance.

To Mr. Holt, all this pompous wrangling in high places over the placement of accent is highly amusing. And he is sprightly and irreverent about it all, choosing his own pronunciations where logic and consistency seem to be on his side. For those whose fate has so often hung on a vowel, it won't appear quite so hilarious. There is a hope, however, that those who rule the pedagogical destinies of others, may look into this honest little book and come away with the feeling that culture and pronunciation are by no means irrevocably interrelated.

A. H. L.

THE SABER-TOOTH CURRICULUM: INCLUDING OTHER LECTURES IN THE HISTORY OF PALEOLITHIC EDUCATION

By J. Abner Peddiwell, Ph.D. Mcgraw-Hill.

Under the blessed disguise of J. Abner Peddiwell, some would-be educational wag has here made a rather labored and highly gauche flight into the realm of phantasy. It is a painful experience to read this kind of pedantic humor which never quite comes off. Modern education in many of its forms is sufficiently droll if told "s without any elaborate symbolism or juvenile analogies. This kind of Abner Peddiwell stuff is just too, too coy for our taste. A simple factual report of the somber machinations of the lunatic fringe in the profession is infinitely more grotesque than this ineptly wrought fable for our times. There is fun aplenty in education these days for anyone with half an eye for the incongruous. Books like *The Saber-Tooth Curriculum* neither add substantially to our merriment, nor do they act as the spirit of comedy ought to act: as a corrective for the excesses into which human fallibility so often drives us.

As humor, the book merits that ineffably apt description, "corny." If you are looking for insights which will make your pedagogical life richer and more vital, you won't find them here. You'll get much more fun from the daily comics which will give you a better understanding of your boys and girls. You'll get much more profit from a careful and critical reading of your professional literature, what little there is that merits this distinction.

A. H. L.

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ks concerned with educational matters may be sent for review to Mr. A. H. Lass, Boys High School. ool textbooks will not be reviewed.

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PROFESSIONAL CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE TEACHERS IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

This list of professional contributions has come to the division in response to a questionnaire sent to all the teachers. There are over one thousand separate entries exclusive of magazine articles written by teachers. These undoubtedly exceed in number the published volumes which appear in this series.

To Mr. Lazarus Ross of P. S. 141, Brooklyn, we are deeply indebted for his willing assumption of the tedious task of classifying the data sent in by the teachers.

The material in this article and others to follow in succeeding issues of HIGH POINTS bears eloquent testimony to the professional aliveness of the teachers of our vast school system. What makes this list of contributions even more noteworthy is the fact that it represents professional activity outside of the classroom. The way in which our teachers have met and solved the problems raised in the classroom, the earnestness, devotion, energy, and resourcefulness that have been lavished on the citizens of tomorrow—all this is too well-known for comment. But that so many of our teachers have been able and willing to devote their spare time to the raising of professional standards and to the enrichment of the professional literature merits more than passing notice. To our teachers, this body of material must appear as a healthy omen indeed. There is life, zeal, and vision in our rank, and it is finding expression and spreading its influence. To the public, there is ample assurance in these pages that the destinies of its children are safe so long as its teachers continue to grow personally and professionally, so long as society continues, as it has in the past, to provide them with the "cue and motive" for exploring and making richer and more significant the environment in which the child develops.

JACOB GREENBERG.
Associate Superintendent.

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ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION OF SCHOOLS

Author	Title	Publisher	Date
Adler, Martha	Mental Tests as a Basis for the Classification of School Children	New York University	1913
Arnold, Frank J.	A Study of the Coöperative Method of Education in the New York City High Schools	New York University	1932
Blumenthal, Frances	A New Method for Approximating the Homogeneous Grouping of School Children	Educational Administration and Supervision. Warwick and York, Baltimore	1924
	Adjusting the Rate of School Progress to the Normal Curve	World Book Company	1928
Briscoe, Alonzo Otis	Size of the Local Unit for Administration and Supervision of Public Schools	Teachers College, Columbia University	1935
Covello, Leonard	The Community School—(co-author)	D. Appleton-Century	1937
Crow, Alice	A Profile Method of Rating Teachers		1924
DeMott, Walter H.	The Neglected School Population	Fordham University	1930
DiNapoli, Peter J.	Homework in the New York City Elementary Schools	Teachers College, Columbia University	1937
Ehrenfeld, Abraham	The Mannheim School System—An Ideal Municipal Experiment in Germany	New York University	1936
Goodwin, Mary	The History of Teachers Salaries in the City of New York	Library of the College of the City of New York	
Greenberg, Benj. B.	The Reconstruction of Education in an Underprivileged Neighborhood	Teachers College, Columbia University	1937
Haney, John D.	Registration of City Children	Teachers College, Columbia University	1910
Hartill, Rufus M.	Homogeneous Grouping as a Policy in the Elementary Schools in New York City	Teachers College, Columbia University	1936
Greenberg, Jacob	The Relationship Between Intelligence and Achievement in Foreign Languages	New York University	1939

Author	Title	Publisher	Date
Heller, William I.	Organization and Administration of Evening High Schools	Teachers College, Columbia University	1909
Hohn, Emil	The Functions and Duties of Principal of Industrial Schools	New York University	1929
Hollywood, Martha	Curriculum Construction	Fordham University	1929
Jaffe, Philip	Development of a Technique for Evaluating Courses of Study and Syllabi in Arithmetic—and the Application of the Technique to an Evaluation of the New York City Course of Study and Syllabus in Arithmetic of 1929, Grades I to VI	New York University	1936
Jaffe, Samuel S.	Proposed Modification of the New York City courses of Study in Arithmetic for Dull Normal Pupils in Grades I-VI	New York University	1938
Johnson, Mark Hooker	The Dean in the High School	Professional and Technical Press, New York	1939
Kelly, Edwin M.	The Grade Adviser System in the Senior High Schools of New York City	Fordham University	1932
Klein, Adolph	Felix Adler's Contributions to Experimental Education		1935
Kroll, Abraham	The Junior Clerical Assistant—with Jane P. Reilly	Ourselves	1935
Kulp, Helen W.	Student Ministry to Children	Commercial Press, Shanghai, China	1919
Kurke, George	The Correlation of the Educational Classics and the Junior High School Theory and Practice	New York University	1938
Lane, Louise C.	Parent-Teacher Relationship in Progressive Schools	Temple University, Philadelphia	1933
Lazar, May	Fundamentals for Intermediate Grades. Publication No. 21	Bureau of Reference Research and Statistics	
Lindemann, Elizabeth	Article on Project Work	Progressive Education Association	1929
Lutyen, B. Helene	Mortality of the Student body of New York University. 1923-30	New York University	1933

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Author	Title	Publisher	Date
Maguire, Edward R.	The Group Study Plan	Charles Scribner's and Sons	1928
McDonald, Milo F.	Learning in the High Schools	Eastern Publishing Company	1928
Murray, Matthew J.	School Attendance and Its Relations to Senior High School Achievement	Fordham University	1934
Nussey, Herbert V.	The effect upon Educational Accomplishment of a Scholarship Society in an Elementary School	New York University	1937
Ostroff, Rose	A Plea for the Dull Child	Fordham University	1930
Palmland, Rebecca	History of the Elementary School Curriculum with Special Reference to Holidays and Vacations	New York University	1918
Patril, Angelo	School and Home	D. Appleton-Century	
	Talks to Mothers	D. Appleton-Century	
	Problems of Childhood	D. Appleton-Century	
	Schoolmaster of a Great City	Macmillan	
O'Connor, Zena C.	The Runaway Boy in the Correctional School	Teachers College, Columbia University	1938
Riftin, Harry	Public School Education in Newark, New Jersey (1666-1935)	Fordham University	1936
Ritter, Mortimer C.	The Organization of an Educational Institution for New York City's Largest Industry—The Needle Trades	Tribune Printing Company	1938
Rutledge, Samuel A.	The Development of Guiding Principles for the Administration of the Teachers College	Teachers College, Columbia University	1930
Sandalls, Marion	The Place and Functions of Study in Education	Fordham University	1930
Schlockow, Oswald	School Discipline		
Schoenberg, Samuel	Commercial Program of a Continuation School	New York University	1930

Author	Title	Publisher	Date
Silberstein, Nathan	Elimination of High School Pupils	New York University	1920
Simpson, Mortimer	The Construction of a Character Building Curriculum for an Elementary School		1929
Steinberg, Samuel	Educating Superior Students (Co-author)	American Book Company	1934
Stockwell, Helen Louise Cohen	Educating Superior Students (Co-author)	American Book Company	1935
Van Denburg, Joseph K.	Elimination of Pupils from New York City High Schools	Teachers College, Columbia University	1911
	The Junior High School Idea	Henry Holt Company	1920
	ADULT EDUCATION		
Brown, Samuel J.	A Suggested Course of Study . . . for Non-English Speaking Adults	Charles Scribner's and Sons	1919
	Organization, Supervision, and Maintenance of Schools for Adult Foreign Born	State Department of Education, Hartford, Connecticut	1920
Cohen, I. David	Gateway to English	Rand McNally	1920
Silberberg, Irma L.	The School of Wisdom: An Experiment in Adult Education	New York University	1932
	BIOLOGICAL SCIENCES		
Baden, Victor	Embryology of the Nervous System in the Grasshopper	Journal of Morphology	1936
Bedford, Edgar A.	Epinephrin Content of the Blood in Condition of Shock	American Journal of Physiology	1916
Berg, William N.	A Comparative Study of the Digestibility of Different Proteins in Pepsin-acid Solutions	American Journal of Physiology	1909
	Statistical Basis of Errors in Immunity Tests	American Review of Tuberculosis	1938
Brolles, John E.	Effect of Irradiated Yeast on Respiratory Diseases	Not published	1929

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Author	Title	Publisher	Date
Dlugatz, Herman	The Vitalization of Biology Teaching	Fordham University	1929
Gramet, Charles A.	Biology	Globe Book Company	1928
	A Laboratory Study Guide for Biology	School Book Company	1932
Horton, Ralph	Biology	Houghton, Mifflin Company	1935
	Biology Students Manual	Houghton, Mifflin Company	1936
Klein, Sidney J.	Solubility of Pneumococcus in Saponin. Sensitizing Action of Sterols	University Library (Columbia)	1933
Kupfer, Elsie	Studies in Plant Regeneration	Torrey Botany Club	1907
Levine, Michael	The Cytology of the Hymenomycetes, Especially the Boleti	Lancaster Press	1913
Mandel, James J.	The Relation of Germinal and Interstitial Components of the Gonad to Control of Pituitary Secretion and the Maintenance of The Accessory Genital Structures	New York University	1935
Mann, Mary Lee	Calcium and Magnesium Requirements of Asperzillus Niger	Bulletin of the Torrey Botanical Club	1932
Martin, Florence I.	Advanced Biology (King, Martin, McCue)	Globe Book Company	1928
Metzner, Jerome	The Feeding Reaction of Severed Proboscides of Dileptus Anser	Science	1933
Metzner, Jerome	Adventures in Biology	New York Association of Biology Teachers	1939
Morris, Helen S.	Physiological Effects of Boron on Wheat	George Banta Publishing Company	1931
Schwarze, Carl A.	The Parasitic Fungi of New Jersey, Bulletin 313	New Jersey Agricultural Experiment Station	1917
	The Method of Cleavage in the Sporangia of Certain Fungi		1922
Shafer, Henry Burnell	The American Medical Profession, 1783-1850	Columbia University	1936

Author	Title	Publisher	Date
Staber, Maud J.	Anatomy of Sesban Macrocarpa		1907
Wheat, Frank M.	Diurnal Lepidoptera of Kentucky	Kentucky University Press	1910
	Laboratory Manual in Elementary Biology	Ginn and Company	1916
	Advanced Biology	American Book Company	1929
	General Biology	American Book Company	1930
	Everyday Problems in Health	American Book Company	1934
	Educational Biology	American Book Company	1936
Wolff, Walter H.	Adventures with Living Things—a General Biology	D. C. Heath and Company	1938
Yampolsky, Cecil	Inheritance of Sex in Mercurialii annua	American Journal of Biology	1919-1920

CLASSICAL LANGUAGES

Browne, Ruby W.	The Third Triumvirate (written in Latin and Greek)	New York University	1908
Bryant, Arthur Alexis	De Vita Theniensium Quae Dicitur Privata Titulis Attieis Illustrata	Harvard University	1905
Chester, Viola S.	Latin Three Years (Aids to Cicero)	Globe Book Company	1935
Chickering, Edward C.	Introduction to Octavia Praetexta	Marion Press	1910
	Beginners Latin By The Direct Method (with Harwood Hoadley	Charles Scribner's Sons	1914
	First Latin Reader	Charles Scribner's Sons	1917
Fedter, Bruno	Octavia By Seneca		
	A National Roman Drama		
	Seneca as a Representative of Stoie Philosophy in Rome		

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Author	Title	Publisher	Date
Henry, Margaret Y.	Latin First Year (Magoffin and Henry)	Silver Burdett and Company	1928
	Dogmatism in Cicero's Philosophy		1925
Holde, Clara	Virgil's Eclogues and the Roman Year	Fordham University	1937
Lamb, William W.	Syntax of the Heptameron		1912
Light, Grace	Latin Syllabus Revision High School Division	Board of Education, New York City	1938
MacVay, Anna Pearl	Women's Self Estimate as Shown in Greek Drama	Columbia University	1908
	Report on Classical Teaching in Great Britain and Ireland	Educational Review	1909
	Ausonius, Poet of the 4th Century	Classical Weekly	1911
	The Classical Club As An Educational Agency	Classical Journal	1919
	One Year of Greek; Is it Worthwhile?	Service Bureau for Classical Teachers	1926
	Vergil, Prophet of a New World	Proceedings of N. E. A.	1929
	The Bimillennium of Vergil		1930
Murphy, Kathleen	Bellarmine DeLaicis (Civil Government) (Translation)	Fordham University	1927-8
Rankin, Wilfred	Tertullian the Jurist	University of Aberdeen	1929
Roeder, William	Roman Civic Education as Revealed in the Literature of the "Golden Age"		1933
Siedler, Charles W.	Suetonius and His Sources	New York University	1913
	Latin—A Concise Grammar	Globe Book Company	1923
	Guide to Caesar	Oxford Book Company	1932
	Guide to Cicero	Oxford Book Company	1935
Tonsor, Charles A.	Demosthenes	New York University	1911

Author	Title	Publisher	Date
	Progessive Course in Latin Books—I and II	Charles H. Stebbins	1925, 1926
	Bridge to Caesar—(with Stebbins)	Charles H. Stebbins	1927
Walker, Israel	Kynouria—Its History in the Light of Existing Remains	Bayard Press, Williamsport, Pa.	1936
Wedeck, Harry E.	Narrationes Biblicae	Silver, Burdett and Company	1928
	Humor in Varro And Other Essays	Blackwell, Oxford, England	1929
	Third Year Latin	D. C. Heath and Company	1931
	The Living Language: Book II	D. C. Heath and Company	1934

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION

Anderson, Woodford D.	History of Commercial Education	State University at Ann Arbor, Michigan	1900
Beygrau, Feederick R.	Typewriting in Public Schools	Journal of the National Education Association	1916
	Obstacles to the Attainment of Speed in Shorthand	Gregg Publishing Company	1915
Cahill, Mary F.	Junior Office Practice	MacMillan Company	1929
Center, Stella S. (with collaborator)	Secretarial Procedure Text-book for Secretaries	The Ronald Press	1929
Cole, Carolyn Percy (with Louise E. Bonney)	Handbook for Business Letter Writers with Exercises	Harcourt, Brace and Company	1922
Davis, Benjamin F.	A Study of Shorthand Teaching	Teachers College, Columbia University	1936
Edelson, Emanuel	An Elementary Study of Business	Edelson and Veit	
Filfus, Nathaniel	Graded Exercises in Bookkeeping and Accounting	Oxford Book Company	1923

(*To be continued*)

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REPORT OF THE INVESTIGATION OF REGENTS EXAMINATIONS BY THE FIRST ASSISTANTS' COMMITTEE

The present study of the problem of the Regents Examinations is an outcome of conditions that have been developing in the high schools of New York City during the past decade or more. To a greater extent than ever before, in spite of the organization of vocational high schools, pupils have been flocking to the general high schools who are not qualified either by ability or by interest to do the work that is expected of them there. A variety of modified, simplified courses in the various subjects have been introduced to provide for these pupils. In addition, the Regents Examinations have been simplified in many instances in order to help more pupils to obtain at least a passing mark. Nevetheless, the teaching is very definitely determined by the State syllabi and by the Regents Examinations. Teachers and supervisors complain that they are unable to realize through the teaching of their subjects the objectives for which their subjects are included in the curriculum. Instead of helping the individual pupils in their growth, the examinations serve as a selective agency for promoting failure and elimination. The question has, therefore, been raised at frequent intervals as to why the Regents Examinaton system should not be abolished or at least modified in order to remove or to weaken its undesirable influence on the work of the high schools.

In 1923, Dr. Tildsley, now retired Associate Superintendent in charge of High Schools, submitted to chairmen of departments a set of questions concerning Regents Examinations among which he asked:

"Have the general use of Regents Examinations made it necessary for the teachers to stress drill on special topics in order to prepare pupils to pass them?"

"Have you found that the Regents Examinations curtail the teacher's freedom in the scope or methods of instruction designed to train pupils for practical and efficient living?"

In 1928, the author of this article repeated these questions in a study which he made for the First Assistants' Association. The answers on the two occasions were as follows:

	1923		1928	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
The first question	50%	50%	53%	47%
The second question	49%	51%	47%	53%

As far back as 1923, the supervisors felt that the examinations were casting an undesirable influence on the teaching; and the interval of five years from 1923 to 1928 did not bring about any material change in this point of view.

In 1937, a committee of the High School Teachers Association of New York City conducted a similar study among the classroom teachers. Of 1500 replies to a questionnaire, 54% listed cramming, 43% listed wrong emphasis as to educational values, and 38% listed 'discourages experimental efforts on part of teachers' as disadvantages inherent in Regents Examination. Nevertheless, 54% thought it would be poor educational policy to discontinue Regents Examinations in the first two years of the high school. Whatever interpretation is placed on the replies in those studies, the fact remains that too large a number of our pupils are unable to do successful work with the courses of study that lead to the Regents Examinations.

The present study is the immediate result of the recent Report of the Regents Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York, in which the following statements are made:

"Base high school graduation on readiness to leave school, as judged by local school officers in accordance with rules and regulations to be approved by the State Education Department, and discontinue the Regents Diploma.

"End the Regents Examinations as graduation tests, and transform them into examinations designed to discover the weak spots in curriculum or teaching. Make avilable to schools a variety of examinations through which the schools themselves can measure pupils' achievement.'*

This stand is a far cry from the original purpose of the examinations when in 1878 the Regents academic examinations were first given in response to concerted action by the academic principals of the state who urged the Board of Regents to establish a series of outside objective tests in secondary school subjects for the purpose of measuring the work of their schools and of establishing proper standards of scholarship. This was done in a set of resolutions offered at the University Convocations of the years 1866 and 1871 and by means of legislation in 1877, in order "to furnish a suitable standard for graduation from academies and academic departments of union schools and for admission to the several colleges of the state." The above quotation differs also from opinions about the examinations expressed at various times since 1878. For example, a committee appointed by the State Department in 1923 reported: "No changes

* Gulick, Luther H. *Education For American Life.* McGraw-Hill, 1938. (Page 48).

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should be made which would destroy what is unique and especially valuable in the New York State system. In particular, this committee is of the opinion that the substitution for the examinations system, to any considerable extent, of any system which would rely primarily on the certification by individual schools would not be in the interest of the maintenance of educational standards in the state."

In 1924, the Annual Report of the State Department of Education said: "An important factor in the growth this year has been the extend use of the examinations in the high schools of New York City . . . The use of the examinations revealed to the supervisory officers of the city individual weaknesses in instruction, both in schools as a whole and in subject groups."

Again in 1927, Commissioner James Sullivan in his annual report said: "To test the academic principals of the state in this matter, I asked for a vote at the December 1925 meeting. Out of an audience of between 300 and 400, I could count only three that expressed a wish to have the Regents Examinations eliminated. . . . In other subjects in which we were more than willing to give Regents credit on the certification of the school, the teachers and the principals of the state were unwilling to do so, belying the common statement supposed to emanate from themselves that their good teaching work was hampered by Regents Examinations."

Conditions today are decidedly different from those of a decade ago. These conditions are aptly described in the New York State Education Department Bulletin, entitled *Regulations Relative to the Secondary School Curriculum* (1934): "The reorganized high school curriculum recognizes the challenge to secondary education resulting from the marked increase in high school enrolment and the greater attention that must be given to the widely differing abilities and interests of the secondary school population. Recognition is also given to the necessity for further adjustment in the senior high school to meet the needs of pupils whose interests lie in other fields than the so-called academic subjects, but that are none the less important in developing individuality and in making each individual most useful in the community in which he lives."

Commissioner George M. Wiley, of the State Education Department, in commenting on this quotation in his bulletin on *The Changing Function of Regents Examinations*, published in 1937, says: "It is now apparent that the large objectives which have been brought into view by the curriculum readjustments now under way cannot be fully realized without further modifications in our examination procedure." And then he goes on to recommend that "(1) the optional plan governing the use of preliminary examinations in the cities and villages of the State be extended to include other communities where there is an approved six year secondary school, (2) there be a further reduction in the number of subjects in which Regents Examinations are offered, these subjects to be selected from those not used for competitive or scholarship purposes, (3) the state examinations be not used in such a manner as to interfere in any way with the development of experimental instructional materials for pupils of superior ability or for pupils of lower mental level, (4) increasing time and attention be given to the development of an adequate testing program that will serve the needs of educational guidance, that will be informative at the growth and progress of each individual pupil, and that will aid parents as well as teachers in meeting more intelligently the advisory responsibility toward adolescents throughout the junior and senior high school."

In the present study of the problem of the Regents Examinations, the committee of ten First Assistants*, representing the various subject matter fields, submitted to the chairmen of departments in the high schools a questionnaire containing the following questions:

1. *To what extent do the Regents Examinations influence*
   (*a*) *the teaching of your subject,*
   (*b*) *the content of the course of study in terms of flexibility and of adjustment for individual differences?*
2. *What is the effect of the Regents Examinations on the quality and the techniques of supervision?*
3. *What is the effect of the Regents Examinations on the attainment of educational objectives for* (*a*) *the academic pupils,* (*b*) *the non-academic pupils?*
4. *Since the regulations involving Regents Examinations in the city are self-imposed,*
   (*a*) *should we propose a modification of the present scheme to the Associate Superintendent in charge of High Schools?*
   (*b*) *If so, what plan would you suggest*
      (*1*) *for immediate adoption?*
      (*2*) *to be adopted after further investigation?*

The replies to questions 1, 2, and 3 are summarized in the following table. The figures represent the number of chairmen who gave each reply listed in the first column.

* The committee consisted of the following First Assistants: Mrs. Marie M. Arnold, Miss Mary Doux, Miss Marion D. Jewell, Mr. Edward Kauzer, Mr. Nelson Kline, Miss Grace Light, Miss Monica D. Ryan, Miss Helen E. Schradieck, and Mr. Joseph B. Orleans, Chairman.

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Question	Reply	Eng.	Soc. Stud.	Math.	Phys. Sci.	Bio. Sci.	Mod. Lat.	Mod. Lang.	Bus. Prac.	Sec. Stud.	Total
1(a)	No influence	35	10	2	4	2	7	10	6	4	80
	Favorable influence	10	7	14	2	4	10	5	.....	12	64
	Unfavorable influence	.....	40	20	20	14	3	43	19	2	161
1(b)	No influence	3	8	.....	.....	.....	2	5	6	3	27
	Sufficient flexibility	23	2	12	6	2	8	6	.....	8	67
	Interferes with adjustment	12	35	23	26	18	6	40	19	6	185
2	No influence	32	24	16	12	8	10	23	14	.....	139
	Undesirable influence	6	23	13	2	12	6	26	9	1	98
	Helpful influence	4	1	1	12	2	.....	1	2	15	38
3(a)	Satisfactory	24	21	19	27	3	19	23	5	11	152
	Unsatisfactory	11	19	15	7	10	1	27	11	3	104
	No effect	7	6	.....	.....	6	.....	1	3	3	26
3(b)	Satisfactory	14	4	8	4	.....	5	7	3	14	59
	Unsatisfactory	22	33	22	27	12	9	42	18	3	188
	No effect	4	6	.....	.....	2	.....	.....	.....	3	15

The discrepancies between the total numbers of replies to the questions within each subject group are due to the fact that some chairmen failed to reply to one or more questions and some made irrelevant statements that are not included in the summary.

The chairmen did not necessarily use the terms 'favorable,' 'unsatisfactory,' and so forth. These terms represent the essence of the replies which were expressed in many instances at some length.

It is true that the tables furnish a general picture of the points of view of the chairmen of departments concerning the problem of the Regents Examinations. However, opinions expressed by individuals and the reasons for their attitude should be of greater significance than mere numbers. We submit, therefore, some typical selected statements:

CHAIRMEN OF ENGLISH DEPARTMENTS

"In English the Regents Examinations influence the teaching in normal upper term classes to quite an extent. Students are given definite training in précis writing and in the technique of answering a question."

"The subject matter of the Regents Examination has affected the course of study in terms of flexibility and adjustment to individual differences. Literary types, likely to be used as a basis for questions, have been put into the high school course, whether or not the students are capable of appreciating and employing them."

"The influence is in every way a salutory one. The questions on the English Regents Examinations are generally ones which test the powers, skills, learnings, and appreciations which represent the major objectives in the four year English course: power to read and interpret, power to organize materials and set forth ideas in clear, correctly written English, power to define words accurately. The English syllabus is sufficiently flexible to permit adjustment for individual needs and differences. The English Regents Examinations need not limit differentiation nor enrichment of the course."

"The Regents in English as at present constructed and administered have no appreciably deleterious effect on the teaching of English in my department. We do not find that the objectives of the Regents Examinations restrict our methodology or choice of curricular material in any way. In fact, apart from occasional aberrations on the part of the test makers in Albany, we find ourselves in whole-hearted agreement with those attainments the Regents attempt to measure. As long as human beings make examinations, these examinations are going to be fallible in some respect or other. But the present examinations allow us to teach pupils as human beings, to make literature vital and real to them, to sample widely from the best literature for our teaching, to strive for clarity, force, grace, and precision in expression; in short, to do all that we should do as teachers of English."

"It is my belief that the majority of my eighth term teachers of English are conscious of the Regents Examinations throughout the semester, though one of the ablest teachers declares that she is influenced by the objectives defined by the N.E.A., not by the Regents Examinations. All of my teachers agree with me that the ever-increasing aspects of our subject with which the English Regents questions are concerned are overloading the course and diminishing the time and attention formerly devoted to imaginative writing and full discussion of the literature read. In our school thus far we have felt that we cannot extend our recent modification of the English course for the poorest students beyond the sixth term, lest they should not eventually be able to pass the Regents Examinations. Thus the Regents are affecting our adaptation of the work to the abilities of these students in their last year or more, for a considerable number will be unprepared in less than nine terms."

CHAIRMEN OF SOCIAL STUDIES DEPARTMENTS

"The Regents Examination to a great extent is a strait-jacket rendering difficult any radical revisions of the course of study to meet the interests, aptitudes and needs of the youngsters."

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"They make the differentiation in the course of study almost impossible. We group students on the basis of the I.Q. and performance in all work as well as in history. We have honor classes for the very excellent, normal courses for the average and special or slow classes for the dull. As all must take Regents, the best we can do for the slow is to give them the minimum essentials of the syllabus. If the Regents barrier were removed, we could give them worthwhile work that would be within the range of their ability to do. Honor classes could be more skilfully handled by giving them more enriched courses than is possible under the present restrictions."

"To a certain degree the Regents Examination forces all teachers of the social studies to spend more time teaching facts rather than teaching for social competence, teaching the text rather than the pupil. Teaching in bright academic groups is comparatively unaffected by the Regents, except that we are forced to cover ground and have too little time to do a thorough job. It is in the teaching of our slower group that the Regents has the most harmful effects, for we fear to cut material, and so we try to teach too much to pupils whose mental equipment is such that they cannot grasp the subject. Such teaching, which is not ours out of choice, but one of necessity, violates all the progressive principles of education that we set up."

"The present history Regents Examination should have little effect on methods used in the classroom. I know that a fairly large number of teachers of history ignore the Regents Examination until a two weeks coaching period at the end of the term. I do not doubt that many teachers find themselves restricted by the importance they attach to the examination. This is not necessarily the fault of the examination. It can also be attributed to the teacher's attitude. He feels that he must coach his students to pass a limited number of standard questions instead of realizing that a well taught class, encouraged to read widely and to reason from that reading, is apt to find the examination fairly easy as compared with class standards."

CHAIRMEN OF MODERN LANGUAGE DEPARTMENTS

"The point of view of the teacher is undoubtedly influenced by the Regents Examination. Although theoretically a pupil should take an examination in his stride, and although cramming is certainly a practice to be deplored, one must recognize that with competition as keen as it is in the matters of college entrance and of scholarships, it becomes a pirmary purpose of the student to do as well as he can, and the teacher naturally wishes to give him all possible help. In this very understandable way, the French course evolves into a course preparing directly for the Regents."

"The Regents Examinations have been a powerful agent for progress in the teaching of Modern Languages in the last twenty years. The aural questions have forced teachers to give more attention to pronunciation and comprehension of the spoken language and to use the language more in the classroom. The new reading question has resulted in more effective teaching of reading, and the civilization question has given a new impetus to the cultural work. While I agree with many teachers who feel that there is still too much emphasis on grammar in the examinations, I think that with the above record the Regents could not fairly be branded as reactionary. In view of the great diversity of aim from school to school and even from teacher to teacher and the current tendency to innovation for innovation's sake, it seems highly desirable to have some stabilizing agency."

"The Regents Examinations do influence the teaching of modern languages to some extent. That is, we consciously prepare the students to cope with the Regents Examination situation. Since all students, as a matter of policy, are required to take the Regents, we feel that it would be rather unwise to neglect to give them some idea of the best methods for achieving success. It would be unfair, however, to state that this influence has been detrimental. As a matter of fact, all phases of language instruction can be completed. The examination is, so far as we are concerned, merely a standard check."

"The teaching of foreign languages is influenced by the Regents Examination to a very great degree. We spend too much time on grammar and literal translation and tricky, idiomatic composition. This leaves insufficient time for reading, aural and oral work, and cultural work. The Regents Examinations have improved somewhat in this direction. They now give credit for dictation, comprehension, reading and cultural questions. However, the questions are, as a rule, so badly chosen and deal with so many trivial points, that the improvement is more apparent than real."

CHAIRMEN OF DEPARTMENTS OF MATHEMATICS

"The Regents Examinations influence the teaching of mathematics to a considerable degree since instruction in many classes leans toward the acquisition of thoughtless skill in answering typical questions rather than toward the exercise of reason in varied situations. Drill, which is good if not carried to excess, takes the place of productive thinking. Time is short, courses are crammed with content, and the primary objectives of the teaching of mathematics are not achieved but are sacrificed

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to the mechanical repetition needed for the skill that brings about good results in Regents Examinations as measured by marks."

"The Regents Examinations exert considerable influence on the teaching of secondary school mathematics, an influence which is beneficial. Both pupils and teachers have an immediate goal which necessitates close adherence to the prescribed courses of study. There is, however, sufficient latitude in the courses of study to permit the correlation of the subject matter of mathematics with that of other fields."

"In general drill is given a prominent place in every lesson and is emphasized particularly near the end of the term. Much of the time devoted to drill could be used to develop rich concepts and relationships. A natural tendency under the present set-up is for conscientious teachers to slight developmental aspects of the lesson in favor of intensive drill. The acquisition of information and skills becomes an end, rather than a means of developing the powers of comparison, generalization, logical thinking, and so on, which justify the teaching of mathematics. The teacher's efforts are directed at the lowest third of the class. The brighter pupils in the normal classes are compelled to mark time or proceed at a pace which is too slow for their mental abilities."

"Regents Examinations tend to cause teachers to exert undue pressure on students because of their anxiety to make a good record. Too often the teaching becomes like that in a cram course and is directed primarily toward the passing of the examination. In geometry, for example, teachers are inclined to omit or to fail to emphasize those theorems which are not likely to be given on the test."

CHAIRMEN OF DEPARTMENTS OF PHYSICAL SCIENCE

"The present Regents Examinations encourage encyclopedic information and not scientific thinking, scientific attitude, knowledge of environment and the meaning of science to modern society."

"Too many topics are prescribed. Emphasis is placed on information, memorization and drill. Since habits of thinking and of working do not enter into the final mark, pupils do not receive the training in such habits that might otherwise be given. A fixed syllabus is now prescribed. This prevents the adaptation of the study to the needs of the students individually."

"Since the general tendency of teachers of Regents subjects is to make the passing of examinations a principal aim, it is natural that the teaching of the subject will be oriented to this end and the more important objectives, such as, a development of open-mindedness, of suspended judgment, of the scientific method, are very much neglected."

"Regents Examinations influence very materially the teaching of the subjects under my supervision: physics, chemistry, biology, and physiography. In practice, we try to forget at least for the first three or four months of each semester that there are such things as Regents, and we attempt to teach our pupils so as to enrich and vitalize their mental and emotional horizons. The awakening (for us as well as for our pupils) comes toward the close of the term when it is suddenly discovered that these state imposed tests are lurking around the corner and that an immediate change in teaching procedure and educational emphasis is required if the usual percentage of success is to be duplicated. At once, the objective changes, certain stock types of questions are stressed, and the hitherto emphasized enrichment, extra-curricular reading, after-school science work, trips and expeditions to places of scientific interest, etc., all take on a secondary importance. The Regents Examinations form a serious obstacle to a free, inspirational kind of teaching."

"The Regents Examinations influence us to the extent that they hold us up to a definite level in our operations and give us definite subject matter and objectives to cover and attain. A few teachers feel that the examinations give a feeling of pressure, but this may be obviated with planning. The content is as flexible as any good teacher can wish. The syllabus is considered as a minimum basis for examination purposes, but need not tie anyone down. In some slow classes, however, teachers feel that they cannot always cover the ground."

CHAIRMEN OF DEPARTMENTS OF BUSINESS PRACTICE

"A very definite method of teaching bookkeeping has been developed in New York City. I believe that this method has influenced the content of the Regents Examinations and the teaching of bookkeeping throughout the state. Although the content of the examination is constantly in the minds of teachers during the entire two years of the subject, it does not influence the teaching; we influence the examination content. Bookkeeping as it is taught in New York City is a subject demanding good reasoning ability. This is especially true in the second year. Students of low reasoning ability have almost no chance of success either in school or in business. During the first year we do all we can to make it possible for students not fitted for such work to obtain the maximum benefit from the pursuit of the subject. We do not encourage such students to attempt the second year. This is caused by the theory we follow in the method of teaching, not by the content of the Regents Examination. Any examination except one that demands only record keeping would be too difficult for

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non-academic students."

"The Regents Examination has little influence on the teaching of the subject. The examination is given at the end of the second year and our department devotes only three weeks in preparation for the examination. The department is not Regents conscious, since our city syllabus in the subject requires more than the State syllabus. The Regents Examination in bookkeeping has changed considerably in the last few years. It stresses the analytical and interpretative aspects of the subject."

"The nature of the examination is such that teachers must forget the life of the student, except insofar as the student must pass the Regents tests to obtain a diploma, even if he obtains a grade as low as 62%. Teachers therefore coach more than they teach. Teachers cannot aim for culture, citizenship, mental growth and for a full understanding of life and its many problems as reflected in the community of our students. A cram course is the result."

"Individual differences—absurd! Students must learn what is required and not what they need or what they can do. Bright students, average students, sub-average students must be fitted into a mold. Superficiality becomes the keynote rather than thoroughness, as material must be covered, even if but 65% can be achieved."

"They influence the teaching of the subject very much, as the sole aim of the average teacher is to have the largest possible percentage passing. While the process of drill and review does not prevent the teaching of new subject matter, it, nevertheless, appears to be the principal idea in the mind of the teacher. There is no flexibility and possibility of adjustment for individual differences. It operates more like a machine that is geared to capacity."

The following is a summary of the replies to question (4a), *"Should we propose a modification of the present scheme to the Associate Superintendent in charge of High Schools?"*

Reply	*Eng.*	*Soc. Stud.*	*Math.*	*Phys. Sci.*	*Bio. Sci.*	*Lat.*	*Mod. Lang.*	*Bus. Prac.*	*Sec. Stud.*	*Total*
Yes	24	43	29	20	16	10	43	21	5	211
No	13	9	7	14	8	9	14	4	14	92

The vote of 211 vs. 92 in favor of recommending a change of some sort is an indication of the marked feeling of dissatisfaction that prevails among the chairmen in the high schools. Since, in many instances, the questionnaire had been discussed at department meetings, it may be reasonable to assume that this feeling of dissatisfaction prevails among the teachers also.

The last question in the study asking for suggested plans elicited a variety of schemes and proposals for change, classified under the following heads:

a. Abolish the Regents Examinations altogether.
b. End Regents tests as a requirement for graduation.
c. Establish city-wide tests.
d. Require Regents only for eligibility for scholarships and college entrance.
e. Permit only those pupils to take Regents Examinations who are recommended by the school.
f. Modify the type of examinations offered at present.
g. Make Regents Examinations optional for each school.
h. Revise the present syllabi.
i. Offer different types of diplomas.
j. Relax the standards for the non-academically minded pupils.

Throughout all the suggested plans the comment most often mentioned and repeated was that something must be done to segregate those pupils whom we have become accustomed to designate as "academic" from those whom we label "non-academic" or "non-academically minded" or "low I. Q." or "dull-normal" etc. In this way it will be possible to relax the standards for the weaker pupils without sacrificing the better ones.

To supplement the major part of the investigation, the committee submitted the following question to a list of selected chairmen of experience, in order to obtain information about conditions in departments in which a Regents Examination, formerly required, had been abandoned for a number of years:

In what specific ways has the removal of the Regents Examination in elementary algebra, elementary biology, elementary bookkeeping, and second year language influenced (a) the character of instruction in the grades formerly subject to the examination, (b) the content of the course of study in terms of flexibility and adjustment for individual differences in the grades formerly subject to the examination, (c) the work of the upper grades? Add a statement also of the criteria which have aided you in arriving at your opinion, e. g. observation by the chairman, opinions of teachers, tests, etc.

For the mathematics departments, sixteen chairmen replied of the eighteen to whom the question was submitted. Three of the sixteen felt that there was a loss in the dropping of the examination in elementary algebra, that the teaching had become superficial, that there was less rigor and drill. Two felt that there was no change. The others felt that the removal of the examination had brought

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about greater freedom to experiment and greater flexibility in rearrangement of work and in teaching procedures, that there was more time for the leisurely development of new work and for the assimilation of mathematical ideas and for emphasis on worthwhile objectives. Most of the chairmen felt that the work of the upper grades had not been seriously affected.

The five chairmen of departments of biology to whom the question had been submitted felt that the removal of the examination in elementary biology allowed greater flexibility and emphasis on content fitted to local conditions, more freedom and leisure in teaching, more emphasis on objective work and on developing scientific thinking.

In the departments of business practice, likewise, the four chairmen concerned expressed the opinion that the work had improved, that it was possible to introduce new subject matter, that the pupils now get a full year of real instruction, that the work of the upper grades had improved.

In the modern language departments, the committee found that a large number of schools were still requiring the second year examination. A few of the chairmen replied that pupils in non-Regents classes complete the required reading and the cultural syllabus, that work is more flexible and richer with greater emphasis on reading.

From this part of the investigation, the committee concluded that, in general, the removal of the Regents Examinations in the four subjects concerned has not imposed a serious handicap on the teaching, but has rather offered opportunities for improvement.

The following two replies to the questionnaire used in this investigation are included in their entirety in this report because of the uniqueness of their content in comparison with all the other replies received and because of the opposite points of view expressed. The first is from the chairmen of a department of modern languages, the second from the chairman of a department of mathematics.

(1) "May I say, in regard to the questionnaire in regard to Regents Examinations, that, in my humble opinion, it does not make a particle of difference whether there are or are not Regents Examinations or any form of uniform tests imposed by another body. As long as the end of our educational process seems to be to produce a 'high percentage of passing marks,' our whole system will be gauged to that end. I taught for years in ....., where the Regents were at that time abolished. There were local examinations. Later, the Regents were re-introduced. The difference was that between tweedle-dee and tweedle-dum. Perhaps a huge system needs such a mechanical device as the Regents (or a local) examination method. But real education is not affected one way or the other.

"As long as 'passing' in an examination with the low 65% standard is held satisfactory, any type of examination will do. I feel that the whole problem of education does not depend on the examinations given, but on quite different factors."

(2) "Conceding that many criticisms of 'Regents Examinations' can be made, I believe that on the whole they are the most effective single item in our system for establishing and maintaining some character and quality of work. Any school that has on its roll considerable numbers of pupils who are incompetent to comprehend the material of the Regents syllabus surely may organize special classes outside the normal course. Certainly any school that pays more than incidental attention to the Regents requirements in teaching, its programming, its accomplishment, has a decidedly anaemic conception of [illegible] opportunities and duties. Certainly any school that cannot cover as a minimum the assigned Regents syllabus is woefully lacking in its accomplishment.

"In my experience the highest respect to the conduct and direction of the Regents Examinations is given by pupils, teachers, and principals. No local examination ever had such serious consideration. To eliminate these uniform, outside, state-regulated, tests would cause a decided slump in teacher and pupil effort, in my judgment."

On the basis of an analysis of the 370 replies received from the chairmen of departments, the committee has submitted the following recommendations to the Superintendent in charge of High Schools:

I. Several types of diplomas should be offered:
   Type A. For pupils who show that they are able to do the quality of work that is now expected of the better candidates for the academic and the general diplomas
   Type B. For pupils of the kind described as non-academically minded, as low I.Q.'s, as dull-normal, as slow, and so forth
   Type C. For pupils in special-

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ized curricula leading to differentiated art diplomas and differentiated diplomas in technical fields

II. Regents examinations should be required:
a. in English Four Years for all types of diplomas
b. in American History for type A diploma only
For type C diplomas the present local examinations approved as the equivalent of the Regents Examinations in the major field of specialization shall be continued.
All other Regents requirements for graduation shall be abolished.

III. It follows from recommendation I that the types of diplomas suggested will call for reconsideration of
a. the number of credits of required subjects
b. the number of credits of elective subjects
c. the number and the types of sequences
d. appropriate syllabi and courses of study, particularly for groups not preparing for Regents examinations

IV. Until recommendations 4, 5, and 6 on pages 295 to 297 of Spaulding's Report on High School and Life are adopted by the State Department of Education, pupils should be permitted to take the Regents Examinations on a voluntary basis for the following purposes, if they are qualified by scholarship in the judgment of the faculty:
a. college entrance
b. scholarships: State and Cornell
c. qualifying certificates
The recommendations referred to above are as follows:

No. 4. That the Board of Regents discontinue the present State Examinations Board and establish in its place a board whose sole function shall be to supervise a program for the selection of applicants for admission to higher institutions of learning in the State. Methods of selection approved by this board should eventually be substituted for the present system of Regents Academic Examinations.

No. 5. That, following the establishment of the board of selection, the plan of awarding state scholarships in higher institutions of learning on the basis of pupils' ratings on uniform examinations be replaced by a plan, the details to be elaborated by the proposed board.

No. 6. That the proposed board of selection investigate the feasibility of awarding two classes of scholarships, the award being based on identical personal, social, and scholastic criteria, etc.

V. Because of local conditions that vary from school to school, the committee recommends that each school be responsible for its system of examinations used to measure effectiveness of instruction and achievement of the pupils. A carefully organized local testing program should serve to motivate learning, maintain [illegible] work, measure accomplishment, aid in classification of pupils and diagnose pupil difficulties. The committee feels that these objectives can be attained by local examinations better than by a state wide examination not specifically adapted to local conditions.

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George Washington High School.

THE SOCIAL STUDIES AND THE REGENTS' INQUIRY REPORTS

One of the publications of the Regents' Inquiry Into the Cost and Character of Education in the State of New York was devoted to an analysis of social studies teaching in the State.[1] The Report created the impression that social studies teachers were not doing their job. That this is the belief of the Inquiry may be verified by even a casual reading of the Conclusions and Recommendations.

This judgment of social studies teaching was formed by a study of the data concerning both pupil achievement and school practice. Pupil achievement was measured by tests previously used on a national scale and others constructed for the Inquiry. They were applied to 22,584 pupils within sixty-two representative schools in New York State and were designed to measure pupils' (1) socially useful knowledge about American history, civics, current affairs and local community life, (2) understanding of basic terms and concepts, (3) skills in map reading, in reading graphs, and in using library references, which are useful both in school and in life situations and (4) attitudes toward nationalism, internationalism, race, politics, free speech, right of free assembly, and willingness to participate in group action. School practice was determined by (1) Professor Wilson's visits to twenty-five secondary schools during the school year 1936-37, (2) A questionnaire "dealing with many aspects of social studies instruction" returned

[1] Wilson, Howard E., *Education for Citizenship*, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1938.

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by three hundred and eighty-four teachers, (3) An analysis of a check list of curriculum topics for the purpose of finding out the emphasis and trends in the curriculum as they appear in the actual classrooms returned by four hundred and thirty-five teachers, (4) The Regents' Inquiry staff studied State material such as curriculum bulletins, courses of study, data as to "course enrollments, as to extracurricular activities, as to teachers' training, as to supervisory practices." A survey was also made "of the literature available on the teaching of the social studies within the State of New York."

Using these techniques, the Inquiry found, among other things, that "As a whole, leaving pupils are . . . deficient in knowledge of problems, issues and present day facts with which every intelligent citizen must be conversant if he is to be something more than a mere voter." If this estimate is correct, then the present crisis in self-government is being intensified.

The Inquiry sets up as "the basic objective of general education . . . a degree of social competence which will enable pupils to participate not only harmlessly but constructively in the operations of society." "Civic competence" is held to be one of the aspects of "social competence" and involves "membership in such a democratic society as the United States traditionally seeks." The Inquiry did not define either term carefully. We may assume, however, that Professor Wilson would include in his definition "knowledge, understanding, study tools, interpretation skills, proper habits, certain attitudes, sound ideals, experience in democratic living, and a social conscience."[2]

In testing for "civic competence," the Inquiry urges that the distinction "be borne in mind that, so far as possible, the information, concepts, skills, and attitudes dealt with are those demanded by civic competence rather than alone those which the established curricula profess to deal." Consequently, readers of the battery of tests given to the pupils of the State should not be surprised to find a "Community Affairs Test" which calls upon the pupil to answer such questions as: "11. The average size of families in my community is (a) less than 3 persons; (b) 3-4 persons; (c) 4-5 persons; (d) 5 or more persons." "28. People trying to plan for the future of my community should know that during the ten-year period, 1920-30, the population in my community (a) decreased; (b) increased less than 10%; (c) increased 10% to 25%; (d) increased more than 25%." "31. Of all persons in my community, the percentage found guilty

[2] Schuker, Louis A. *An Outline of an Examination of the Social Studies in the Secondary Schools of New York State.* New York, 1939, p. 4. (Unpublished).

of violating traffic ordinances last year was (a) less than 5%; (b) 5%-10%; (c) 10%-15%; (d) 15% or more." Dr. Louis A. Schuker used eight of the items contained in the Community Affairs examination to test teachers in the Social Studies Department at New Dorp High School and the Executive Board of the Social Studies Association of New York City.[3] If the test is valid, teachers may also be charged with civic incompetence. A more likely explanation is that the Community Affairs Test did not measure knowledge of the community.

In the tests measuring pupils' "Aesthetic Interests" were questions calling for recognition of such personalities as Willa Cather, Pauline Lord, Burgess Meredith, Robert Benchley, Franchot Tone, Lawrence Tibbet. The Social Terms Test included such questions as "73. The people of a Congressional District are called the Congressman's: 1. supporters; 2. opponents; 3. clients; 4. constituents; 5. henchmen." Questions of this kind, designed to measure "civic competence," can be drawn from every test contained in the battery.

Do the tests measure "civic competence?" Can "civic competence" be measured? The answer to the first question must be subjective. Is the pupil who knows that the people of a Congressional District are called the Congressman's con-

[3] *Ibid.*, 7.

stituents likely to become a better citizen than his classmate without this knowledge? Numerous factors must be considered before even a tentative answer can be offered. The Inquiry has examined some of these factors, notably, attitudes of pupils toward nationalism, politics, race. Nevertheless, in "selecting" aspects of "civic competence" there is always the chance that the more important aspects have not been tested.

With reference to the second question raised: If we hold that "civic competence" cannot be measured, it must be with the realization that "scientific education has not yet produced the tools for completely accurate analysis" of the objectives of education. The writer is not willing to wait for the more perfect test to arrive. We must recognize the limitations of the instruments used by the Inquiry and evaluate its findings accordingly.

Professor Wilson states that "The tests are related to life and do not hark back to a school program." Hence, our pupils were not tested for what they learned in the classroom, but for what they are expected to derive from their experiences outside of the classroom. If the "civic competence" of students is dependent upon their experiences outside of the classroom then it is time to reorganize our curricula so that these experiences, as far as possible, are made part of school life. The

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reliance upon incidental outcomes of social studies instruction will not suffice to equip our students for democratic living.

The attempt to educate students for citizenship, in an academic atmosphere, is complicated by the fact that thousands of pupils who, in previous years, would not have continued in school are now marking time in the classroom. The tests have been given during a period when our school population is made up of non-academic types as well as the "typical" student of the 1920's. Even our "typical" pupils may no longer be "typical." The present writer believes that pupils who, buoyed by the prospect of employment, would ordinarily concentrate on their studies, now take a "what's the difference" attitude. A query is therefore raised concerning the validity of the same measuring rods for normal students and those who are in school because there is no place to go.

There are factors other than the questions asked of the students which may account, in part, for the poor results in the State.

(1) There is good reason to believe that, at least in some instances in New York City, less consideration was given to the actual administration of the tests to the pupils of the State than to the construction of the instruments. Students called abruptly from the classroom, seated in an auditorium, and given boards to write on, may not be properly enthusiastic over taking a battery of tests. The inconvenience is reflected in at least one of the results not included in the Report as published, i.e. "legibility of writing."

(2) A lack of consideration is also evident in one of the tests included in the battery which calls for a knowledge of "Personalities in Sport." An all-girls school in New York City tested in this category showed a median of sixty-three percent lower than all other schools tested in the State. An all-boys school in New York City showed a median ninety-nine percent greater than all other schools tested in New York State.

A pupil antagonized by unfair questions, by questions calling for information not included in his school work, by the conditions under which he is asked to take an examination may vent his anger on the examination. The extent to which this may have impaired the results has not been determined.

(3) The Report states that the three year sequence of history (one-half year of civics, one year of European history, one year of American history, one-half year of economics) offered in the State is taken by "scarcely one-fourth even of the pupils who finish grade 12." There is, therefore, the possibility that, despite weaknesses in social studies teaching, if the three year sequence were taken by all students, the results might have been less discouraging, and we would have been spared the lashes so liberally applied by Professor Wilson.

In this analysis of "civic competence" as an objective of social studies teaching and the efforts of the Inquiry to measure the "civic competence" of our students, it has been pointed out that:

(1) "Civic Competence" is a worthy objective of social studies teaching, but the Inquiry was too harsh in criticizing social studies teaching on the basis of tests which largely measure incidental outcomes of social studies instruction.

(2) Many of the items in the battery of tests were weak, but since "civic competence" cannot be measured scientifically by educational science in its present stage of development, we must study the findings as they are presented, bearing in mind the limitations of the measuring rods used.

(3) The Inquiry's attempt to measure, with the same instrument, the achievements of a student body as heterogeneous mentally as that which exists in New York State is open to question.

(4) There is a need for reorganization of the curricula in the social studies so that the objective "civic competence" may be made realizable.

(5) There is reason to believe that students, in New York City at least, were antagonized by the conditions under which they were asked to take the test.

FINDINGS FOR NEW YORK STATE

No attempt will be made to list all the findings of the Inquiry. Only the more pertinent will be offered.

I. *Framework of the Social Studies*

1. As varied a group of communities in the State as exists in the nation as a whole. Upon this structure rests a highly centralized state education system with no provision for leadership in the social studies.

II. *Evidences of Civic Competence*

1. In civics, students showed mastery of only fifty percent of the items tested.

2. In American history only one-third to one-half of the items were mastered. (An example of the type of knowledge called for is: "Although himself an advocate of a more autocratic form of government, he wrote a very able exposition in defense of the federal Constitution in his contributions to the Federalist. (1) Jefferson (2) Hamilton (3) Marshall (4) Jay (5) Adams.")

3. An extreme range of achievement among individuals and among schools tested.

4. Pupils in smaller towns generally less "socially competent" than those in large towns.

5. Pupils in State shown to be superior in knowledge of current events to rest of the country on

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basis of National Current Events Survey. Evidence to show that instruction in current events is superficial.

6. Low level of learning in community affairs.

7. Pupils' understanding of basic concepts in the social studies are not so high as the conditions of modern living and the hopes of a democratic society would demand.

8. The teaching of skills is neglected in the social studies.

9. Out-of-school factors recognized. Pupils do not have outstandingly liberal attitudes toward nationalism, internationalism, race and politics. Inclined to give "verbal allegiance" to civil liberties. "Let George do it" attitude toward civic coöperation.

10. "Those who showed more liberal attitudes were of distinctly higher socio-economic status, as judged by the type of parental occupation reported by pupil."

11. Only about one-third of the pupils are brought into the organized life of the student body in any official capacity.

12. Typical pupil listens to the radio, but mostly to comedy and popular music. Goes to movies once a week, examines two books per month. The books are related to school and also "best sellers."

III. *The Pupils Who Study Social Studies*

1. Pupils differ widely as to mental aptitudes and these differences are not recognized in the course of study.

2. Brighter pupils do not tend to take more than a minimum of social studies courses; social studies are not sufficiently challenging.

3. Pupils see little relation between their instruction in the social studies and their own reactions to socio-civic situations.

IV. *Social Studies Instruction*

1. Present syllabi offer a patternless and inadequate statement of objectives.

2. The amassing of facts crowds out other objectives.

3. Sad neglect of study skills and desirable mental operations.

4. Schools not concerned with outcomes of instruction in the realm of behavior. Do not assume any direct concern in post-school living.

5. Classroom procedures not sufficiently varied. Characterized by the question and answer method.

V. *The Social Studies Curriculum*

1. Is based on patternless syllabi with no stress on worthy objectives. Nor is any allowance made for pupil differences.

2. Too historical; too factual; covers too much ground.

3. Direct instruction in skills is preferable to dependence on indirect outcomes of instruction.

VI. *Methods, Materials and the Evaluation of Instruction*

1. Teaching too exclusively a matter of hearing recitations.

2. Schools need more equipment, such as books, visual aids.

3. Testing practices are very poor.

4. Effect of Regents' Examinations is to inhibit the improvement of instruction.

VII. *The Teacher of the Social Studies*

1. "A superior group of teachers—well trained, widely travelled and read, and with a wide range of social and professional interests."

2. Teachers having a few years of experience, but not more than twenty-five years of experience seem to be superior.

3. Teachers lack connections with vital forces of organized political and economic life.

VIII. *School as Experience in Living*

1. A program of social education cannot be restricted to the social studies classroom.

2. Active group activities within the school seem to contribute to the development of liberal attitudes toward race, politics and nationality and willingness to assume responsibilities in group living.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The Inquiry is not lacking a constructive program, for wherever an adverse finding is made, a recommendation follows. Frequently, to make the criticism is to propose the remedy. Hence, only the less obvious and more important recommendations will be listed.

I. *Pupils Who Study Social Studies*

1. Differentiated curricula for varying groups of pupils.

2. Curricula more vitally concerned with pupils' own living.

II. *Objectives of Social Studies Instruction*

1. State objectives in terms of social competency.

2. Program of required and elective courses for the very able, the average and the less able.

3. Objectives should deal with the emotional conditioning of the pupils as well as with their purely mental development.

4. State Education Department should stimulate rather than prescribe. Syllabi should be brought into accord with the objectives set up.

III. *The Social Studies Curriculum*

1. Cover less ground.

2. Vary the curriculum for groups of different abilities.

3. Supplant State syllabi by a series of "Curriculum Bulletins in the Social Studies."

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IV. *Methods, Materials and Evaluation of Instruction*

1. Pre-service and in-service teacher-training in the ability to guide pupils' thinking through verbal discussion and general activity.

2. Eliminate state diplomas in order to reduce the hold of the Regents' Examinations in instruction.

3. Substitute for Regents' Examinations a series of tests continuously developed, which will measure all desired outcomes of social studies instruction. These tests to be given from time to time in selected schools as a basis for supervisory stimulation and guidance of whole school systems.

V. *The Teacher and the Social Studies*

1. Only teachers who have been trained in the social studies should be permitted to teach the social studies.

2. Teachers to be relieved of mechanical details.

3. An earlier retirement age for teachers.

4. An active State Education Department intent upon the study of objectives rather than of mechanical and bureaucratic details.

VI. *School as Experience in Living*

1. School authorities should not depend upon the social studies alone to develop the kind of social competence in pupils that society needs.

2. Pupils to be encouraged to join extracurricular groups.

3. Social studies teacher must accept responsibility for development of an active group life (in school) for pupils, especially in matters affecting pupil government.

CRITICISM OF FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Professor Wilson is anxious to avoid "condemning teachers too completely." In Chapter I, he clearly states that the success of social studies teaching in the State is conditioned by (1) "patternless" state syllabi, (2) Regents' Examinations, (3) a highly centralized state education system, (4) the lack of a "responsible officer" in the social studies field, (5) "a certain measure of controversy over reform." It is unfortunate that these factors, although mentioned, do not influence the Inquiry sufficiently in their findings.

In explanation of the "patternless" state syllabi, it is held that "each course seems not to know what the other social studies courses are about." Nor is the content of the syllabi consistent with the objectives stated. Furthermore, there is no provision made in the syllabi "for educating some pupils to select and follow intelligently those who can lead them." In this connection it should be observed that honor schools, honor classes, and slow classes in New York City are many years older than the Report, although it was not until the Fall of 1939 that they were widely adopted in the secondary schools of New York City.

Professor Wilson's scorn for the "bureaucratic" State Education Department is generally evident and he recommends that that body should devote itself to a study of objectives rather than remain immersed in mechanical detail. This raises the question whether the Inquiry contemplates a change in the objectives of education from time to time.

Professor Wilson is particularly censorious where the state syllabi are discussed. In place of these "totally useless documents," he proposes the drawing up by specialists of a series of "Curriculum Bulletins in the Social Studies." Each bulletin deals with a topic and contains an outline of content, teaching and testing suggestions, bibliography and so on, for a single month's work. The Inquiry offers a framework for the development of the unit bulletins, but did not consider to be in its province the construction of a detailed curriculum.

It is stimulating to contemplate the reading of up-to-date skillfully organized outlines of a month's work. But, if we may judge by the attention paid to mimeographed aids to teaching, the probability of the bulletins revolutionizing the teaching of the social studies is remote. It might be wiser to extend the Inquiry's proposal that with each social studies department should rest the final responsibility for devising its own curriculum on the basis of community needs and thoroughly remodelled state syllabi. Departmental conferences might well be devoted to the organization of units of work with an exchange of ideas by members of the Department. The special staff, suggested by the Inquiry, would then make its appearance with a view to helping those departments unable to develop a superior course for themselves. It is to be hoped that the final plea of Professor Wilson for "an outstandingly capable director of the social studies" will not result in the vitiation of the local autonomy program suggested by the Inquiry.

An even greater handicap to social studies teaching in the State, according to the Inquiry, is the Regents' Examinations. This contribution of the Inquiry is not particularly newsy, but the prestige of the Inquiry, lent to the movement to abolish the Regents' Examinations, may be the much abused straw that breaks the camel's back. In place of the Regents' Examinations, the Inquiry would substitute uniform tests designed to measure "civic competence." These would be given twice a year (though not necessarily in June and January). There is, however, a vagueness as to the specific nature of these tests. Certainly their construction and administration

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would be complicated by the necessity of devising different measuring rods according to the ability group being tested. Since the purposes of the new type test are so clear to the Inquiry, it would have been helpful if they had devised a sample test.

The social studies curriculum in the State is criticized as being "too historical." This is taken to mean that there is little in the curriculum to make the study of history a more personal matter to the student. Social history, including such aspects of American life as motion pictures, public libraries, the theatre, is largely ignored. Slight attention is paid community life and the problems of metropolitan government. It is doubtful whether social studies teachers, at least in New York City, adhere so closely to the State syllabi. There is an increasing tendency to utilize community problems in the vitalization of teaching. More lessons are being devoted to propaganda analysis. Teachers are becoming increasingly aware of the possibility of tying up radio broadcasts with the lesson for the day. The limits of further experimentation along these lines are, of course, hedged by the need for "covering ground."

This need for "covering ground" may be offered as a partial explanation for Professor Wilson's failure to observe any widespread attempt to educate for citizenship in the social studies classroom. The best intentioned teachers often lose sight of the objectives of social studies teaching in their eagerness to have "100% passing in the Regents."

Since teaching in the State has become intimately associated with the textbook (a factor in "too historical" teaching), it is a minor shortcoming of the Report that textbooks are scarcely mentioned except to note that there is not enough of them. An examination of their qualities and suggestions as to revision along the lines drawn by the Inquiry would have been helpful to teachers, textbook writers, and pupils.

Another possible reason for Professor Wilson's failure to note worthy teaching objectives in the social studies classrooms of the State is that in his desire to observe at first hand in as many school systems as possible, he did not linger long enough in any one place to accurately judge the quality of teaching. In at least two cases in New York City he is known to have visited almost twenty classes, and to have held conferences with supervisors, all in one school day.

His poor opinion of teaching practices in the State may also be based on insufficient evidence. Only three hundred and eighty-four teachers answered his questionnaire on aspects of social studies instruc- the State. What proof does Professor Wilson offer that these teachers are representative?[4] What proof does Professor Wilson offer that teachers returning the four hundred and thirty-five check lists of curriculum topics to determine "emphasis and trends in the curriculum as they appear in the actual classroom" are representative of social studies instruction in the State? Yet, Professor Wilson writes that "These formed an invaluable source of information concerning teachers and school practices and are drawn upon heavily in presenting the general picture of school instruction."

The Inquiry recommends that the burden of developing "social competence" should not be placed on the social studies. But, the blame falls on social studies teachers, nevertheless, and no attempt is made to determine the place other subject fields are to occupy in training for citizenship. It is further recommended that only teachers holding licenses in the social studies should be permitted to teach the subject. This is true in New York City, except where program exigencies forbid. Nor is complete dependence for "education for citizenship" placed upon the social studies department in the average New York City high school.

Despite the admission of the Inquiry that educational science does not permit of accurate measurement of "civic competence," it is stated that students are "lamentably ignorant" of community affairs.[5] This tendency to ignore a basic assumption of the Inquiry is marked by such expressions as "deplorable"; "uninformed"; "sad neglect," and so on. In the final analysis we shall know whether our students have been educated for citizenship by their conduct in a democratic society.

It is noted that only one-third of the pupils of the State "are brought into the organized life of the student body in any official capacity." This is just as true of the body politic and is a discouraging tendency in a democratic country.

That few of our students see any connection between the social studies and socio-civic situations is as likely to be due to the immaturity of many of our students as to social studies instruction.

Attention is also given to teachers and adult life. The Inquiry recommends that teachers share the economic and political life of the community. It is hoped that this does not entail the teachers' joining the local political club and engaging in door missionary work in the hope of gaining experience for the classroom. A happier arrangement would be for the teacher and community to work out mutual problems together "with good will toward each other, sympathy for one another's motives, reciprocal attempts to understand conflicting points of view, and

[4] *Ibid.*, 5.

[5] *Ibid.*, 4.

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willingness to let each retain his own convictions in circumstances where teacher and community continue to disagree."[6] The further development of parent-teachers' organizations would bring the teacher into closer contact with community problems.

While teachers in the past may have enjoyed the political and economic life of the community only vicariously, there is an increased tendency (not mentioned by the Inquiry) for teachers to taste economic and political life through the trade union movement. Whether teachers who do not actively engage in political and economic life understand less of important currents in history is open to debate.

To sum up the points made in this criticism of the Inquiry's findings and recommendations:

(1) Limitations on social studies teaching in the State, such as the state syllabi and Regents' Examinations, do not influencee the findings sufficiently.

(2) The "Curriculum Bulletins in Social Studies" are not likely to accomplish the wonders promised.

(3) The tests proposed to replace the Regents' Examinations make no provisions for individual differences.

(4) The evidence upon which teaching practices in the State are criticized is based on insufficient investigation.

(5) No attempt is made to determine the share other subject fields are to take in education for citizenship.

(6) The limits of educational science in measuring objectives of social studies teaching, mentioned in Chapter I of the Report, are ignored in the findings.

(7) The need for closer cooperation between teacher and community is commended.

NEW YORK CITY IN THE REPORT

References to communities in the Report were purely for illustrative purposes. The Inquiry, therefore, substituted fictitious names for the true names. This has given rise to the question: "Does New York City play a part in the Report?" The answer is emphatically: "Yes."

"Fort Newcastle" is New York City. This was determined by a careful sifting of the Report and was confirmed when the writer was given an opportunity to study reports of the Inquiry on the New York City schools. Furthermore, there is the unequivocal statement made by Professor Wilson before a meeting of the Association of Teachers of the Social Studies that the Report did—and was intended to—apply to New York City as much as to the rest of the State.

A study of the Report will reveal the numerous times that "Fort Newcastle" is referred to by the Inquiry. Frequently, "Fort Newcastle" is singled out for special comparisons with other school systems. In other instances the Inquiry notes that "A teacher in High School A in Fort Newcastle leads a group of stimulated teachers in an attack on the problems of educating especially gifted children; an other in High School B in Fort Newcastle directs a departmental investigation of a new and better relationship between courses in economics and American history." "High School C in Fort Newcastle" is singled out for special mention because of an active current events club which helped place that school at the top of the groups tested on knowledge of current affairs in 1936. "This Fort Newcastle High School outranked Clovertown on that test, despite the fact that Clovertown professes to introduce much more material on current affairs into its regular curriculum."

It is interesting to learn that the best example of social studies teaching in a high level was observed by Professor Wilson in New York City. Here the teacher was "a storm center of pupil activity" in a discussion of international relations about 1900. The teacher was very well informed and refused to be "swept off his feet" by "emotional blasts or vague generalizations." "Facts were related to one another in terms of concepts, and the process was one in which straight thinking was taught and exemplified." So impressed was Professor Wilson by this display of teaching ability that in his talk before the Association of Teachers of the Social Studies in the Spring of 1939, he devoted some time to a description of the lesson.

The reports on the New York City schools studied by the writer show that seven high schools in New York City were tested in 1936. Three of them were selected as representative and retested in 1937. The published Report bases its conclusions and recommendations on an analysis of tests given in the three schools tested in 1937.

In interpreting the results, the chronological age and scholastic aptitude of pupils must be taken into account. Low standings in scholastic aptitude, for example, may indicate an obstacle to the school's obtaining a better than average standing in the special tests. Conversely, high standing in scholastic aptitude may indicate an initial advantage which ought to result in above average scores on other tests. In both of these categories New York City enjoys an initial advantage since our senior pupils are younger than sixty-six percent of those in the rest of the State and their scholastic aptitude is forty-four percent greater than senior students in other schools of the State.

Size of community is another factor of great importance in determing the effectiveness of an educational program. Since no fair

[6] Beale, Howard K. *Are American Teachers Free?* Scribner's. New York, 1936. p. 768.

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judgment can be made of the work of any individual school system until this factor is considered, the comparisons are made with schools which were located in large communities.

First, we shall examine the test results of 1936. In five of the seven schools in New York City only pupils in grade twelve were tested. Hence, comparisons will be made on the basis of the achievements of our senior students in 1936. In the table which follows, the types of tests are named. The percentage indicates the median grades that New York City seniors scored above the average for senior pupils in large communities.

Type of Test	%
American History	61
Civics	57
Acquaintance with Public Affairs	62
Personalities in Public Affairs	64
Attitude toward Race	58
International Attitudes	61
Political Attitudes	56
National Attitudes	54
Attitude toward Pupils	57
Attitude toward Home	54
Books	58
Music and Art	59
Drama	70
Movies	73
Personalities in Aesthetic Activities	64
Personalities in Sport	57
Literature	53
Reading	53

The conclusion drawn from these figures is that New York City seniors are markedly superior to senior pupils in the rest of the State. Statistics for grades nine through eleven show that this holds true in these grades as well.

In 1937, the three New York City schools were given an additional battery of tests including "a test of knowledge of current affairs, a test of understanding of social terms, a test of basic study skills, a test of knowledge of one's own community, and tests of attitudes toward certain tenets basic to American democracy."

In all of these tests, with the exception of the one in community affairs, New York City ranks high in the State. With respect to achievements in the study of maps, charts, library references, and knowledge of local community, the pupils of New York City either lag behind the rest of the State or indicate need for improvement.

The Inquiry did not attempt to distinguish between New York City and the rest of the State when it drew up its Conclusions and Recommendations. Hence, although the achievements of New York City pupils as seen in the above analysis are markedly superior to the rest of the State, it would appear that New York City is among the best of a bad lot.

Up to now there has been much gnashing of molars over the failure of the Inquiry to distinguish between the metropolis and the hinterlands. It is hoped that this analysis of the Report will make clear the fact that the social studies in New York City were evaluated in the Report and that the achievements of our pupils were markedly superior to pupils in the rest of the State.

If the findings of the Inquiry are found wanting, the measuring rods warped, the tabulation inaccurate, there remains little for the critics to do (lest they be called carping) except to agree on objectives, draw up their own tests and make an independent study. This would be constructive in any event.

COST AND CHARACTER OF THE REPORT

The reader leaves the Report with the feeling that the teaching of the social studies in New York State is in a sad way. Only here and there is a phrase dropped to which the teacher may cling in the hope that the training of a competent citizenry is not a lost cause. Yet, a reading of the Conclusions and Recommendations of Professor Wilson has the ring of a familiar tune.

The recommendations for the most part are worthy, and are not less important because they are familiar to social studies teachers. Yet, the reader must be disconcerted by the Inquiry's failure to mention anywhere in the Report that the practices recommended would be in much wider use today, if the funds to establish a truly progressive educational system were available. The Inquiry concludes that the teacher should be free from mechanical routine; that "stimulating supervision is desired by teachers"; that the Regents' Examinations are bad for good teaching; that differentiated curricula should be established for groups of varied abilities; that the curriculum should be linked with the pupils' own living; that a social studies laboratory "equipped with various visual and auditory aids to learning" should be developed in each school; that administrators should guide pupils in their post-school life, and so on. These are not secrets divulged to an open-mouthed corps of social studies teachers. Many of the recommendations are in use in the State today. The Inquiry should have pointed out that the fundamental reason for the backwardness in social studies teaching and its failure to educate for citizenship was not due to the ignorance of teachers, but largely to the fact that teachers' hands were tied by outworn equipment, lack of facilities for bringing the radio and motion picture to the school; feeble buildings, crowded classes, inadequate libraries, antiquated textbooks, a need for more teachers.

The Inquiry, although it mentions limitations on social studies teaching, is not sufficiently influenced in its conclusions. It wholly ignores the powerful pressure groups which condition teach-

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ing in the State and influence the thinking of our students. In the face of these pressures, is it possible to realize objectives which call for the emotional conditioning of pupils as well as their purely mental development? Mildly stated: This is a large order.

The Inquiry notes that our students have adopted the "Let George do it" attitude towards civic cooperation. This is no less true of the body politic, but here the Inquiry recommends a way of life for the school. That way of life is democracy and it is to be applied to pupil management of their group life within the school. Student government, dominated by adults who do "little or nothing to make pupils more willing and experienced in the democratic solution of group problems" must give way to pupil government where pupils are given final responsibility in areas which may be limited "rather than to provide them with much to do under the direction of the principal."

The extra-curricular club activities of students have been further handicapped in New York City by the introduction of "P.M." sessions necessitated by overcrowding of the schools. Thus, this valuable suggestion of the Inquiry is placed further from the reach of willing administrators. "A.M." students and teachers are now hustled out of their rooms to make way for the "P.M." and, in turn, the "P.M." group makes a wild-eyed dash for the exits less nightfall leave them far from home.

An attempt to fill the gap in extra-curricular activities is sometimes made by enterprising teachers who, in accord with the recommendation of the Inquiry, attempt to utilize field trips in the community for the purpose of acquainting students with local problems. The yards of red tape which must be cut before a teacher can take a walk around the block with a student sometimes spans the area of the contemplated trip. Only the most courageous survive the period of negotiation before the trip can be made.

Professor Wilson attributes this failure to utilize field trips to familiarize students with the community to "a negative and timid attitude on the part of administrators." This attitude is probably occasioned by the threat of civil suits in the event of a mishap. Hence, even this means of linking the school with the community is limited. The effort of the New York City Director of Civics to familiarize pupils with the points of interest in the City by means of ferry trips is a notable step in the right direction.

The Inquiry laments the failure of the school to concern itself with post-school living. This criticism is made at a time when the 1937 Census of Unemployment shows that of the 11,000,000 unemployed, almost 4,000,000 were between the ages of fifteen and twenty-four inclusive. "The unemployment rate was over forty percent for the available workers between fifteen and twenty, although under twenty percent for every age group above twenty-five. No age group, even that comprising adults over fifty-five, is as difficult to place as the group from fifteen to twenty, according to the records of the United States Employment Service."[7] It is, therefore, of paramount importance to the youth and educator that guidance be supplied for the many whose absorption into industry may be postponed for a considerable period.

The continued contact with the school through the guidance director may further permit of a more accurate estimate of the needs of our students while still in school. How many of the students in High School "X" actually graduate from college? How many become laborers? How many become professionals? Definite statistics in answer to these and many other questions would help educators to draw up a curriculum more in accord with the actual needs of a community. This kind of guidance is present in our educational system, but budgetary factors beyond the control of educators prevent the wider use of guidance. Until the embargo on school funds is lifted, not only will the post-school factor be neglected, but the "in-school" problem will present greater difficulties.

The specific contributions of the Inquiry have been ably summarized by Dr. Schuker.[8] They are:

"1. The Report emphasized the extreme variations among schools and within schools. It stressed the need for adoption of curriculum and individuation of instruction.

"2. It recognized the school as a way of life and the need for bridging the gap between school and society. This means that youngsters should have the fullest opportunities to practice democracy in school.

"3. It placed emphasis on the development of attitudes, skills and understanding rather than discrete facts.

"4. This Report is in favor of unconditional abolition of the present Regents' Examination system.

"5. It favors the use of varied procedures in classrooms, and better equipment—visual and auditory aids in the social studies laboratory.

"6. It stresses the need for broader content, flexible courses of study, and breadth of teacher-training.

"7. It stresses the need of stimulating supervision, careful induction of inexperienced teachers, provision for visiting days and demonstration lessons, encouragement of active participation in professional organizations.

[7] Reeves, Floyd W., "Youth in a Changing World." *American Teacher*, October, 1939. p. 6.

[8] Schuker, L. A. *An Outline of an Examination of the Social Studies in the Secondary Schools of New York State.* (Unpublished). New York, 1939. p. 6.

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"8. It shows us the need for greater emphasis on direct teaching of such skills as reading maps, charts, and graphs, and locating basic references."

The highly critical nature of the Report becomes less alarming when it is realized that:

(1) The Inquiry in its Conclusions and Recommendations lost sight of the Regents' Examinations as a strong conditioning factor in the teaching of the social studies.

(2) The stultifying effects of the State syllabi upon teaching the social studies in New York State were not given sufficient consideration in drawing up the conclusions.

(3) The conflict over reform in the State Education Department is another handicap lost sight of in the rush to record an overwhelming number of criticisms.

(4) The fundamental limitation of educational science in measuring objectives in education was lost sight of.

(5) The admitted fact that the Inquiry was testing largely for incidental outcomes of instruction.

(6) The possibility that the tests were not administered properly. This was true in at least two instances in New York City.

(7) The hasty visits of Professor Wilson to classrooms in New York City.

(8) The placing of great stress upon questionnaires returned by a small number of teachers who may not have been representative of the profession.

(9) The possibility that the "aspects" of "civic competence" selected by the Inquiry were not the only valuable aspects of "civic competence" that might have been tested.

(10) Most important of all: The failure of the Inquiry to place sufficient emphasis upon lack of financial support for state education so that conditions necessary for successful education for citizenship may be made possible for all the schools of the State.

Professor Wilson's good intentions are beyond question. It is unfortunate that the Report has been taken advantage of by interests keenly alive to the cost of education, but blind to its character.

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THE PLACE OF STUDENT FORUM IN TRAINING FOR DEMOCRATIC CITIZENSHIP

Training for citizenship has always been one of the principal avowed objectives of American education. As with other objectives, however, teachers and administrators have too often assumed that stating it was equivalent to its realization. Until comparatively recent years, although there was no lack of muckrakers, academic as well as journalistic, to point out the wide gap between scholastic ideals and political practices, there was little disposition to question the efficacy of the training for citizenship given by the schools so long as democracy was almost universally accepted as the ideal type of government and progress toward democracy was believed to be not only desirable but inevitable. It is hardly necessary to labor the fact that today the attitude toward democracy has changed or to review the events both in this country and abroad that have brought this change about. Conservatives and radicals, progressives and essentialists, New Dealers and economic royalists, the D.A.R. and the Young Communist League, agree that "democracy is threatened." Schoolmen are challenged to consider whether something more than traditional courses in history and civics, taught by traditional methods, is not necessary if the schools are to fulfill their function of training for democratic citizenship.

Professor Francis T. Spaulding in *High School and Life*,* sums up the needs of the situation as follows: "Perhaps most important, the schools' effort to prepare young people for citizenship should not stop with seeing that boys and girls 'know the facts.' Facts are essential to any constructive citizenship in a democracy. At least equally necessary, however, are respect for the rights which democracy guarantees, and a concern that democratic government shall succeed. Hence the schools' attention must be directed at the same time both to teaching young people the facts with which they need to be acquainted, and to awakening in them an active desire for social progress and a willingness to sacrifice immediate personal comfort or gain in the interests of justice and the general social good."

While there is no general agreement either among educators or laymen as to just what democracy is or what is necessary to preserve it, there is practical unanimity on the idea that sound public opinion

* (The Regent's Inquiry, New York, 1938, McGraw Hill Book Co., p. 265.)

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is one essential. There is likewise general agreement that group discussion is one way of forming sound public opinion. Class discussion in socialized recitations or other forms has long been used in many schools. Discussion groups—literary societies, debate clubs, current events clubs, history clubs, civics clubs—have been a popular form of extra-curricular activity. In recent years the use of the forum, in one form or another, as a means of adult education has grown rapidly. Forums have been carried on by various public and private groups and have been encouraged by the Office of Education. Many high school teachers and administrators believe that student forums and discussion clubs have greater possibilities than have been realized for training for democratic citizenship.

This paper is an attempt to summarize and evaluate some of the material that has been written on the subject in recent years. It is hoped that it will answer some of the questions of those who desire to use the discussion club as one way of helping their students to develop into democratic citizens.

THE AVAILABLE EVIDENCE

The literature on the subject of forums and discussion groups may be divided into four main types.

1. There is a large number of general books and articles dealing with ways of thinking and with the value of discussion as a method of learning and as a necessary or valuable process in democratic living.
2. There are several books and articles, written mainly by speech teachers, dealing with different forms of discussion. Some of these have stenographic reports of discussion of different types which will be valuable for discussion leaders.
3. There is an abundance of pamphlets and articles on the organization and conduct of adult forums. Adult forms differ of course from those conducted by and for high school students, but the differences are in details rather than essentials. Since in any case forum procedures must be adapted to the abilities and needs of the participants, those interested in high school forums will find much that is helpful in this literature on adult forums.
4. There is a limited amount of literature, although some of it is of excellent quality, describing high school practices and recommending procedures for high school groups.

In much of the literature, the assumption is made that forums are good in themselves and there is little effort to prove the assumption or to analyze the specific things that they are good for. The teacher or principal who is looking for statistical or other scientific proof of the value of forums in general or any particular plan of procedure will not find it. There has been very little work in the field that can properly be called experimental.

One exception to the above statement is an experiment conducted by J. Orin Powers and Florence Massey Black with seventh-grade pupils in the Bethesda-Chevy Chase Junior-Senior High School, Montgomery County, Maryland, to determine the relative values of the panel discussion and the Morrison plan as classroom devices for teaching the social studies. The two methods were alternated in parallel classes. They report that the panel discussion method was found superior both for teaching facts and for developing understanding. The panel method was found to be particularly effective for pupils of average or above average ability. Pupils of lower ability did no worse by the panel method but also no better.

Professor Howard E. Wilson, who as a member of the New York State Regents' Inquiry staff in 1936 and 1937 surveyed the schools of the state to determine how effectively they were training their pupils for citizenship, reports some evidence of the value of discussion clubs.* The school whose pupils ranked highest of all those tested in the state in a test on current affairs was one which had an active current events club. Professor Wilson states that the club was "apparently in no small measure responsible" for this result. He found that the best social studies teachers generally made use of the discussion method, but warns that discussion handled by a poor teacher may result in a complete waste of time. He also says: "The effect of well-managed debate clubs on achievement in social studies classes is generally attested. Yet it is to be emphasized that the contribution of such extra-curricular activities as these to achievement tests of intellectual outcomes is only part of the story. Such activities seem to have marked effect on attitudes."

There is in the available literature considerable description of current practice. All of this is interesting and much of it is valuable. It should be remembered, however, that it was written mainly by those responsible for the activity and inclined to be optimistic about its value or by observers who were predisposed in favor of the forum idea.

The literature contains some survey of opinion both of students and supervisors. There is an abundance of personal opinion based on experience, reasoning from theory, or both. The value of this material varies, of course, with the breadth of experience of the writer and his ability to interpret it.

TYPES OF DISCUSSION

Readers of the literature on discussion groups will find some confusion in the terms used to designate different types of discussion. The definitions given below are ones on which there is fairly gen-

* (*Education for Citizenship* p. 209).

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eral agreement and are the ones used in this paper.

Discussion may be divided into two main types, formal and informal. Informal discussion goes on continually in everyday life—among groups of friends, neighbors, or fellow workers, in homes, on trains, in offices and workshops, in locker rooms and restaurants. It is unorganized and usually had no recognized leader. Much of the discussion that takes place in class rooms is of this informal type.

The term *forum* is often used to describe in a general way any meeting where one of the more formal types of discussion takes place. It is also applied to a series of meetings. More specifically it is a meeting, presided over by a chairman or leader, in which the presentation of different points of view takes place and in which the audience takes part either by questions, brief statements, or both. Used in a still more restricted sense it is a meeting in which one or more speakers make formal speeches followed by questions and statements from the audience.

A *round table* is a discussion carried on by a relatively small group, each member participating. There is no audience and the chairman plays a relatively unimportant role.

A *panel discussion* is a discussion carried on by a group of from three to twelve before an audience. Each speaker is an expert on some phase of the question or has prepared in advance, but there are no set speeches. Interruptions by the chairman or other members of the panel are encouraged to clarify discussion. After the panel has made its contribution, the audience participates by asking questions or making statements. The term *symposium* is used to describe a discussion similar to a panel but one in which the speakers open the meeting with set speeches made without interruption. Another form of the panel is the *colloquy* in which the chairman, sometimes called the interlocutor, asks many short questions, acting similarly to an attorney examining a witness in court.

Debate is the discussion, under fixed rules of procedure, of a question whose wording has been definitely agreed upon in advance, the speakers taking opposing sides. A decision is usually given either by judges or by the audience. The audience does not participate in the discussion.

The term *radio forum* is loosely applied to any educational program given over the radio. All of the types described above have been used by the radio. A form extensively used is the *interview* in which one speaker questions another to bring out points that may be obscure.

CURRENT PRACTICE

Before he became United States Commissioner of Education, John W. Studebaker as Superintendent of Schools in Des Moines, Iowa, developed a group of adult forums which won nation-wide attention. It is natural, therefore, that Des Moines should be one of the first cities to experiment with a new type of high school forum. In the Abraham Lincoln High School, Des Moines, forums were made a part of the curricular work in the social studies. At different periods each day throughout the week, all the social studies classes reciting that period met together in a forum, the groups varying in size from approximately seventy-five to one hundred and fifty. In this way practically all of the students of the school were reached. The type of meeting varied; occasionally a speaker presented a subject followed by questions from the audience; more often a student panel presented the question. A poll of student opinion showed responses overwhelmingly favorable to the plan in reply to such questions as: "Do you know more about current problems as a result of the forums?" "Are you more interested in them?" "Do you use newspapers more intelligently?" "Do you want to examine both sides of a question more thoroughly?" "Do the forums make school work more interesting?" A similar plan has been tried with reported success in several of the high schools of Portland, Oregon.

High schools in all parts of the country report forums and discussion groups of various kinds as part of their extra-curricular program which are believed by their sponsors to be valuable. Some of these are held during school hours or in assemblies but the majority are held after regular school hours. It is the opinion of several observers, however, that there is no provision for organized student discussion in the great majority of the country's high schools.

Many schools use speeches by outside speakers in assembly or in adult meetings outside the school to motivate and introduce topics for discussion in student forums. Extensive use is being made of the radio for this purpose by some schools. During the spring semester of 1939 the high schools of New York City coöperated with two different radio programs. As a part of the Columbia Broadcasting System's "School of the Air" eleven broadcasts were made directly from different high school auditoriums. Each program was on some topic of current interest and consisted of a twenty-minute dramatization of the subject, written and produced by Columbia's professional staff, and ten minutes of discussion of the question by a panel of from five to ten students of the school. In some cases, discussion continued, the audience in the assembly participating, after the broadcast had been completed. The other program, "Youth Meets Government" was arranged by the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences and broadcast over the network of the National Broadcasting Company. A series of forty-five minute broadcasts was given, each consisting of speeches by prominent speakers, usually of

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opposing points of view, for half the time and questions and discussion of the topic by a panel of students from one of the high schools for the remainder of the time. A different high school furnished the panel each week. In the opinion of supervisors and teachers of the participating schools both programs were valuable in stimulating interest in vital questions and also in giving training in methods of discussion.

Long Beach, California, reports the development of a "Speakers Workshop," in which students prepare themselves to discuss various questions. Discussions have been held before parent associations and various other civic groups which, reports state, have been highly successful.

In several cities, counties, or larger regions a group of schools has coöperated to hold model sessions of state legislatures, Congress, or other bodies. For several years, the League of Nations Association has sponsored model League Assemblies in different regions. These have been mainly for colleges but some have been held for high schools. Each school represents a certain country and international affairs are discussed with procedures modeled after those of the League of Nations. For several years, Honolulu has held a convention of all the high schools of the city for the discussion of some broad topic. The first day of the meeting, committees made up of representatives from each school discuss some phase of the general theme and draft conclusions. The second day, a plenary session is held where each committee reports the results of its deliberations and final resolutions are debated and adopted. It is the opinion of many teachers who have participated in or observed such model meetings that one of their main values is in stimulating discussion within the participating schools.

THE WEIGHT OF OPINION

The literature shows general, although not complete, agreement on the following points:

1. *Discussion whether in class room or in special discussion groups, is valuable because it teaches pupils to think critically, to distinguish between fact and opinion; it develops tolerance of other points of view; it develops techniques of speaking and listening; it develops value habits that carry over into adult life.*

On this last point, Walter E. Meyer, who is in charge of the project of the Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association for promoting discussion groups among principals, superintendents and teachers to discuss educational policies, had the following to say (in Bulletin of the Department of Secondary School Principals, Vol. 22, No. 76, October, 1938): "If the citizens of America ever learn to discuss controversial issues objectively and in a scientific spirit, their best chance is to be found in the schools . . . the earlier the art of discussion is acquired the better."

It is obvious that discussion goes on continually in everyday life and that many of our actions as individuals or as groups are influenced by discussion. It seems equally obvious that anything that the schools can do to teach young people how to use the method of discussion effectively and to improve the quality of discussion that goes on is educationally valuable.

2. *Organized forums or discussion groups are valuable methods of promoting discussion; they should supplement but not displace discussion in the class room.*

The essential distinction between the use of the discussion technique in the class room and in the special discussion group is that the class room ordinarily starts with subject matter and uses discussion of current problems to vitalize the subject matter. The discussion group starts with current problems and goes back to subject matter as a method of solving them. One of the main values of the discussion group is that it vitalizes and stimulates the work done in the classroom. Even if all the classes in a school used the discussion technique successfully the organized group would still be valuable since it allows pupils to develop their own interests more freely, gives greater freedom in the choice of topics, and develops leadership and habits of self reliance.

The Office of Education in its various publications recommends strongly the type of forum developed in Des Moines where the program is part of the regular curricular work of the school. The main arguments for this plan are that all students are exposed to the forum method and that the school is able to avail itself of the services of the best forum leader for all pupils. These are real advantages but there are also some disadvantages of such a plan. If all students are required to attend forums does the advantage of having a better leader outweigh that of the smaller groups in the regular classes where more individuals would have the opportunity of taking part in the discussion?

The wisdom of requiring participation in a forum by all pupils is also open to question. It is unfortunate but it is true that when something is made a part of the required course of study it loses much of its attraction for many pupils. They prefer an activity which they can control themselves. There seems to be no reason why the required and the voluntary forum can not be combined. Occasional meetings of a large group at which attendance is required can introduce pupils to the forum idea and rouse interest in a problem; these large meetings can be supplemented by classroom discussion and by meetings of smaller

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groups, made up of those interested, to discuss phases of the general problem.

3. *There is no one type of discussion that will fit all schools or all groups within a school; each school should adapt its procedures to the needs and abilities of its pupils, but some form of panel discussion is preferable to the formal debate.*

The old-fashioned formal debate has long been under attack by those who believe that it develops a type of legalistic thinking of which we already have too much in the world. It is a natural human trait to want to prove one's own opinion or one's own group right; what we need for democratic citizenship is not a strengthening of this tendency but development of the habit of seeking the truth even though it proves that our ideas are wrong. As Herbert Spencer said in his *First Principles:* "In proportion as we love truth more than victory less, we shall become anxious to know what it is that leads our opponents to think as they do. And we shall aim to supplement the truth we have found with the truth found by them." There is still an occasional voice lifted in defense of debate but in attempting to justify debate most of its proponents would strip it of so many of its characteristic qualities as to make it something that closely resembles a panel discussion.

4. *The teacher-leader is all important for the success of a discussion group.*

It is a truism that in any teaching situation the teacher is one of the most important factors and it is particularly true of the teacher-leader of a discussion group. A list of the qualities which a good leader needs would bear a striking resemblance to the list of those of the perfect scholar, gentleman, and diplomat. Realizing that perfection in human beings is rare the following are suggested as a few of the things which a conscientious leader will try to do:

a. He will lead pupils to draw their own conclusions, not do it for them. He will never try to put over his own point of view or allow any group to use the club to put over their point of view.
b. He will bring out all points of view, drawing as many as possible into the discussion, restraining the voluble, encouraging the timid, playing the devil's advocate when necessary to get minority opinion stated.
c. He will insist on clear definition and agreement as to meaning of terms used.
d. He will lead pupils to distinguish between fact and opinion, to verify facts, not argue about them.
e. He will summarize the argument frequently, emphasizing points of agreement, narrowing fields of disagreement.
f. He will insist at all times that the purpose of the discussion is to arrive at the truth or as near to the truth as it is possible to get, not to make points or establish the rightness of someone's opinions.

While trying to make the discussion educationally valuable in the ways listed above the leader must avoid dominating the discussion to the point where it becomes, in the minds of the students, "just another class." This is not an easy task. It can best be done by encouraging students themselves to challenge doubtful statements and analyze faulty reasoning. If leaders can be developed among the students themselves it will be valuable training for the student leaders and will strengthen the morale of the group.

5. *Students should, with the advice of the leader, choose their own topics for discussion. These topics should be vital and therefore necessarily controversial.*

There are some laymen and some educators who believe that the schools should "stick to facts" and not attempt to deal with controversial questions. In a school where this philosophy prevails, a discussion group can perform no useful service. There can be no fruitful discussion on facts, admitting the difficulty of always knowing what "the facts" are. If discussion is to have any real purpose, there must be a choice of alternatives, and it will usually be a choice between better or worse, not right and wrong.

The whole forum idea is based on the theory that the schools will deal with controversial questions both in the class room and in the forum. This does not mean that the wise teacher, in advising with pupils on the choice of topics for discussion, will not help them to realize that good taste and common sense preclude certain topics. He must remember, however, that if his efforts in this direction reach the point where the students feel that they have no real choice, much of the usefulness of the forum is ended.

The most common objection stated to high school forums for students is that students are too young to discuss controversial questions with profit, that they will be too easily swayed by teachers' opinions. This criticism, if it is sound, is a criticism of the leader. It boils down to the question as to whether teachers are competent to teach controversial questions. Probably some are not. But if none are the prospect of developing effective citizenship through the schools is dark indeed.

6. *Topics for discussion should be reduced to discussable proportions.*

Inexperienced groups are likely to choose topics that are too broad and general to be discussed adequately in one meeting, such as

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"Capital and Labor," "The League of Nations," "Social Insurance." Such broad topics may well be discussed over the period of a semester or a year, with separate meetings for different phases of the broad question.

7. *All points of view should be represented and given a fair hearing.*

If, through the fault of the leader or the members, a forum gets the reputation of representing but one point of view it has lost most of its usefulness. There is a tendency in large schools for pupils to break up into cliques and many discussion groups are made up of pupils who think alike on certain questions. Such groups serve to reinforce prejudices rather than to develop sound thinking. Large schools which have such cliques should have one inclusive forum where all groups are represented. Such a forum can do much to unify a school.

New York City's great cosmopolitan high schools, whose student bodies represent so many different races, religious and economic groups, offer an exceptional opportunity for realistic and practical teaching of tolerance and democracy. For the same reasons, they are potential breeding places of intolerance. It was doubtless in recognition of this fact that the Board of Education adopted the resolution calling for assemblies to be "devoted to the promulgation of American ideals of democratic tolerance and freedom for all" which has resulted in many excellent programs and has received nation-wide attention. Excellent as these assembly programs are, they will not by themselves develop tolerance or democracy. Democracy needs to be practiced as well as preached. Discussion groups and forums in the schools which will develop the habit of democratic discussion have a real contribution to make in the training of democratic and tolerant citizens.

Discussion groups of various types have long been features of the extra-curricular activities of our high schools. Several schools have large forums which play an important part in the life of the school and are doing effective work in developing methods of democratic procedure. It is the writer's opinion that such a forum, dedicated to the principles of free and fair discussion, not dominated by any clique or faction, but representing all shades of opinion, should be in every high school.

The following are the more valuable references:

Studebaker, John W., Sheats, Paul H., and Williams, Chester S., *Forums for Young People*. Office of Education Bulletin, 1937, No. 25. The best single reference on high school forums. Has description of current practice in many parts of the country, reasons for forums, and valuable advice for leaders. Excellent annotated bibliography.

Meyer, Walter E. "Talking It Through." Committee on Planning, Department of Secondary School Principals, 1939—Suggestions for leaders and those taking part in forums. Bibliography.

Journal of Adult Education, January, 1932. Stenographic reports of five panel discussions held at the annual meeting of the Adult Education Association, Buffalo, 1932. Panels led by Harry Overstreet, Elmer Scott, A. Casswell Ellis, James C. Lawrence, James E. Russel and participated in by many leaders prominent in the adult education movement. Most valuable for a leader who wishes to study technique of the panel method.

Studebaker, John W., and Williams, Chester S., *Forum Planning Handbook*. American Association of Adult Education in coöperation with Office of Education, 1939. A valuable handbook. Annotated bibliography.

Group Leader's Guide to Propaganda Analysis, Institute for Propaganda Analysis, New York, 1938. Suggestions as to using propaganda analysis as topic for forums.

Judson, Lyman and Judson, Eileen, *Modern Group Discussion*, New York, 1937. H. W. Wilson Co. Description of various types of discussion. Valuable suggestions for leaders and participants in discussion by authors who have had wide experience in Agriculture extension service. Extensive but unannotated bibliography.

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HONOR SCHOOLS—A REJOINDER

If I were given to disputation I might be justified in charging that Mr. Albert H. Sager, in his article in the October issue of HIGH POINTS entitled "Honor Schools and Training for Leadership," sets up his own straw men, labels them as mine, and then proceeds to demolish them to my apparent disadvantage. But since it is my purpose merely to clarify my position on an important educational issue, I shall assume that Mr. Sager has misunderstood me.

Mr. Sager seems to make his opposition to my recommendation for the establishment of a super-honor school* center about the phrase "training for leadership." He states that "training for leadership" is the essence of my paper (Straw Man No. 1). I have reread my paper very carefully and fail to find any evidence therein to substantiate this claim. Out of about three thousand words used, the word "leadership" appears a total of four times, and each time it is given only as *one* of several desirable outcomes of the special education of superior students. Mr. Sager has gone beyond the evidence in assuming that training for leadership is my sole objective. My plan is designed to take superior students and make the best that can be made of them, to develop them so that their actual achievement in whatever line of work they undertake is a greater approximation to their potential achievement than would be the case if the special school did not exist. The emphasis throughout my paper was on the maximum development of the gifted students, with the hope that by "stimulating their mental growth," by "foster-

* Cf. HIGH POINTS, 21:20-26, May, 1939.

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ing their powers of intelligent self-direction," and by "implanting the right ideals and attitudes," they would be better prepared for competent leadership in our free democracy. Preparation for *leadership* does not mean preparation for *a* leader.

In further clarification of my position regarding education for leadership, I quote from my comments upon the aims of the Honor School as published in "All The Children"*:

> "We are aware, of course, that great achievement in the world often depends upon more than a high intelligence and that there is no certain correlation between any of the specialized intelligences and social intelligence. We therefore do not set out primarily to produce leaders but we assiduously work to bring out and develop to their fullest extent such intellectual and social qualities as are recognized to be the attributes of leadership. We recognize that among the most essential requisites for positive leadership are the ability to think objectively and clearly, the ability to get along with people, and the capacity to translate considered judgments into action; and that, in the words of Dr. John L. Tildsley, the Honor School product must be thoughtful rather than knowledgeful. A 'thoughtful' individual possesses an inquiring mind, a will to perfection, and a social consciousness. These, together with the functioning of the individual in life situations, are qualities we seek to promote in our Honor School students."

Another of Mr. Sager's straw men is his assumption that I favor a special school. It was not my recommendation to isolate a group of superior pupils with I.Q.'s above 140 in a special school. Indeed, my suggestion was to make room in an already existing organization, so that contact with the average pupil would not be denied these specially gifted students. This recommendation was made because of a feeling that contact with average life conditions would be of value to such pupils. However, there is sufficient evidence to show that the great intellectual differences of the near genius and genius types from the normal type, on the secondary school level, do not differentiate them emotionally and socially from their less gifted neighbors so much as is generally supposed.

His third straw man is created out of a misinterpretation of the term "leadership." There are few words in educational parlance used more loosely than "leadership." Mr. Sager himself indulges in some confusions, upon which indeed, he unfortunately bases most of his objection to my proposal. For example, Mr. Sager makes an analysis of the I.Q.'s of high school leaders and finds them to fall within a range below 100 to above 140. He contends that pupils with I.Q.'s above 140 would be so out of touch with ordinary minds as to be incapable of leading them. Leading them where? What kind of leadership does he mean? Is he referring (1) to the political and social fields where group response is desired in immediate issues, or does he mean (2) leadership in the frontiers of science, in invention, in belles lettres, in philosophy, and in other intellectual pursuits? In the second category would he regard a high intellectual ability as a handicap to success, success in "leadership" of mankind a step beyond the present frontiers of human accomplishment, or would he regard it as the one great asset which should be nurtured and developed if humanity is ever to secure benefit from it? Mr. Sager intimates that I am guilty of assuming that the ability to lead in the fields of science or art, or social studies is identical with the ability to lead in social situations. This, however, is not my confusion, but his. The specific nature of leadership permeates the entire concept advanced by me in the "Super-honor" school.

Moreover, there is no need to worry about the ability of selecting in advance suitable prospective "leaders" to be the pupils in a "Super-honor" school. It is not difficult to pick out students with superior ability. All that is then needed is to be sure that a superior environment for learning has been secured for the education of the superior children and that they have been brought in contact with inspiring personalities. If this has been done and if the educational procedure is suitable, then the result of our endeavors will bear more fruit than would have been the case with the customary procedure. If, from this school, great scholars, litérateurs, artists, scientists, and philosophers develop, and if, from this, we secure very few demagogues, and spellbinders, we may still feel that we have contributed sufficiently to the human weal.

There is a type of leadership more or less defined by "top-sergeant," police captain, leader of a meeting. We need them and at times we need them badly. The better educated they are the better for our democracy. They can be best educated in the regular high school. The super-honor school is not for them. The super-honor school is concerned with developing to the utmost those who possess superior attainments and potentialities to the end that they may push further the bounds of human knowledge, group progress, and human happiness.

Perhaps there is no better way of clarifying an educational problem than by engaging in a controversy over it. For that reason I

* 39th Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools, pp. 65-66.

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am grateful to Mr. Sager. It is gratifying to know that he and many others are engaged in studying the problem of the gifted pupil. Our combined efforts should result in the better development of this, our most valuable natural resource.

HYMEN ALPERN.
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HIGH POINTS

A SURVEY OF READING INTERESTS IN A VOCATIONAL SCHOOL FOR BOYS

What are the books read by vocational school pupils? Are the tastes of these pupils any different from those in academic schools? In order to receive even partial answers to these questions a survey of reading record of over 1000 pupils in the Brooklyn High School for Specialty Trades during the current term was conducted.

How Were the Reading Records Made?

1. English classes were assigned to the school library one period a week.

2. Each pupil recorded on a printed form the book he chose to read, the number of pages read, and a phrase or sentence about the book.

3. He returned the book at the end of each period but he resumed reading it on his next visit. He made a notation every time he read a book.

Books Available

1. Two book cases were used in this project.

2. One contained about 100 books of fiction and the other 100 books relating to trades, crafts, and non-fiction generally.

3. All books were covered and numbered.

4. Pupils were permitted a free choice of reading and browsing.

Determining Interest

Two unique terms were used to determine the interest of the pupil.

1. One was called "pick-up." This refers to the number of times a book was chosen to be read during a period regardless of its completion.

2. The other was called "completed" which indicates that the boy read the entire book.

Interpreting the Tabulation

No attempt has been made to classify the type of literature. Neither has there been an attempt to correlate the number of books "picked-up" casually with those completed. There are certain practical deductions which appear as a result of this survey which may be of value to teachers of English and librarians in the vocational schools.

1. Fiction is more interesting to these pupils than non-fiction relating to trades and crafts.

2. These pupils shift constantly from one book to another.

3. The most popular books are those on a rather low level.

4. A number of books were stolen. Their names are listed. Apparently they were quite interesting to some boys. Most of them were returned later.

Similar studies on a more comprehensive basis should be conducted in the fields of writing, speaking, and reading. We need more objective evidence to answer some of the perplexing questions relating to the teaching of English in the vocational schools.

	Picked Up	*Completed*
Tom Swift—Appleton	41	18
On Secret Air Service—Driggs	38	12
Southpaw—Haines	36	16
Treasure Island—Stevenson	33	8
Halfback—Barbour	31	7
Count of Monte Cristo—Dumas	26	7
Renfrew Rides the Sky—Erskine	26	14
Mystery at Camp Lenape—Saxon	26	8
Strike Him Out—Sherman	25	19
History of United States—Gordy	25	0
Mystery at Castle Pierrefitte—Foa	24	11
O'Reilly at Notre Dame—Wallace	24	12
Man Without a Country—Hale	23	16
Last of the Mohicans—Cooper	22	6
Trail of the Lonesome Pine—Fox	22	9
Mystery Tales for Boys and Girls—Smith	22	11
Mysterious Rifleman—Tomlinson	22	9
Tom Sawyer—Twain	22	3
Case Book of Sherlock Holmes—Doyle	21	9
Mysterious Island—Verne	21	8
We—Lindbergh	21	7
Rip Van Winkle—Irving	20	15
Pearl Diver—Berge	19	8
Harper's Book of Electricity for Boys—Adams	18	2
Book of Short Stories—Williams	17	5
Silver Wings—Whitefield	17	9
King of Gorillas—Gatti	16	7
Fighting the Flying Circus—Rickenbacker	16	7
Renfrew Rides North—Erskine	16	6
Spies—Gollomb	16	8
Red Plume of the North West Mounted—Wallace	15	7
Elson Reader, Book III	15	4
Tarzan—Burroughs	14	8
Burning Up the Sky—Buck	14	6
Jungle Beasts and Men—Mukeriji	14	5
All Sorts of Stories Books—Lang	14	2
Boys' Busy Book—Fraser	13	6
Bomba, the Jungle Boy—Rockwood	13	8
Sand—James	13	5
White Leopard—Fletcher	13	4
On the Warpath—Schultze	13	5
Connecticut Yankee—Twain	13	6

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	Picked Up	Completed
Model Aircraft Builder—Fraser	12	1
American Boy Sea Stories	11	4
Behind the Line—Barbour	11	6
Real Soldiers of Fortune—Davis	11	6
Tale of Two Cities—Dickens	11	0
Secret of Rancho del Sol—Hawthorne	11	7
Rover Boys	11	7
First Electrical Book for Boys—Morgan	11	4
History of America—Fish	11	0
Gullivers Travels—Swift	10	3
Life of Pasteur—Radot	10	3
Deserter—Davis	9	7
Thirty Fathoms Deep—Ellsberg	9	3
Flight of the Grey Goose—Lynde	9	5
Men of Iron—Pyle	9	6
Rock of the Lion—Seawall	9	2
I Like Diving—Eadie	9	2
Handicraft for Boys—Collins	9	3
Boys' Airplane Book—Collins	9	0
Book of Electricity—Collins	9	0
Practical Electricity—Croft	9	1
Book of Electrical Wonders—Hawkes	9	0
Pigs is Pigs—Butler	8	6
American Boy Sport Stories	8	6
Amateur Electrician—Collins	8	3
Gas and Oil Engine—Collins	8	0
Beginnings in Europe—Gordy	8	0
Russ Farrell Over Mexico—Burtis	7	0
Patches—Hawkes	7	4
Messenger of the Black Prince—Mawhinney	7	4
Black Dragon—Munroe	7	2
Kidnapped—*Stevenson*	7	2
Every Day Mysteries—Abbott	7	0
Drums—Boyd	6	0
River Gold—Paxton	6	2
Careers of Danger and Daring—Moffett	6	2
Gasoline Engine Book—Verrill	6	0
History of Our Country—Halleck	6	0
Under Two Eagles—Crew	5	2
TOTAL	1,208	446

(The following books were taken from the shelves by pupils during the time that this survey was conducted; nevertheless, the titles and reactions were recorded by the boys. Most of them were returned later.)

Barbour—*Fourth Down*

Barbour—*Last Play*
Cooper—*Prairie*

Erskine—*Renfrew of the Royal North West Mounted*
Grey—*Riders of the Purple Sage*
Harvey—*Merry Adventures of Robin Hood*
Hough—*Covered Wagon*
James—*Smokey*
Langley—*Pathfinder's Great Flight*
London—*Call of the Wild*
London—*White Fang*

Hardy—*From Far the Madding Crowd*

Ford—*Great K & A Train Robbery*
Conrad—*Rover*

Barbour—*Around the End*
Collins—*Experimental Science*
Rolvaag—*Giants in the North*
Paine—*Campus Days*
Miller—*Black Phantom*
Hawthorne—*Riders of the Royal Road*

London—*Sea Wolf*
Melville—*Moby Dick*
Pyle—*Robin Hood*
Pease—*Shanghai Passage*
Rinehart—*Circular Passage*
Sherman—*Under the Basket*
Twain—*Tom Sawyer*
Twain—*Huckleberry Finn*
Wallace—*Ben Hur*
Paine—*Head Coach*
London—*Cruise of the Dazzler*
Kipling—*Stalky & Co.*
Hopkins—*She Blows and Sparm at That*
Erskine—*Comrades of the Clouds*
Kendall—*Voyage of the Martin Connor*
Dana—*Two Years Before the Mast*
Barbour—*Mystery of the Sea Lark*
Brownlee—*Chemistry of Common Things*
Dickens—*David Copperfield*

Crane—*Red Badge of Courage*
Campbell—*Elephant King*
Byrne—*Messer Marco Polo*
Bridge—*Book of Inventions*
Westcott—*David Harum*
Tarkington—*Seventeen*
Heming—*Living Forest*
Haines—*Toss Up*
Eggleston—*Hoosier Schoolmaster*
Driggs—*Adv. of Arnold Adair*
Bullen—*Cruise of the Cachalot*
Boy Scouts Book of True Adv.
Nordhoff—*Derelict*
Newberry—*Forward Ho*
Mukeriji—*Kari the Elephant*
Ellsberg—*Pig Boats*
Jackson—*Hobbies for Boys*
James—*Sun Up*
Stockton—*Buccaneers and Pirates*

HARRY WOLFSON.

Brooklyn High School for Specialty Trades.

CHORAL READING AND THE FOREIGN LANGUAGES

(Illustrated as a method for the teaching of spoken French.)

Many improvements have been effected in recent years in methods for quicker and more complete acquisition of reading power in foreign languages. But aural mastery, depending as it does on long and frequent practice, becomes more and more difficult to achieve as classes grow increasingly large, and as the time devoted to the study of foreign languages becomes more limited.

We have experimented with choral reading in the teaching of spoken French at Hunter College High School and believe that this method might prove useful to teachers of foreign languages as a device for developing good diction and delivery.

BRIEF HISTORY OF CHORAL READING

Group recitation is a very old and well known form of expression, and in its more primitive aspects it is constantly practiced in the classroom. But as a means for oral interpretation of literature, although dating back to the Greek chorus, it was not revived until the beginning of the Twentieth Century. The French school of "Unanimistes" initiated this art; they composed poetry suitable to this mode of interpretation, and they made phonograph records of the renditions. But in France choral reading has remained more or less within the confines of a literary school, while in England and in the United States it has been adapted to a more popular and practical use. Well known, dependable works of literature have been ar-

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ranged for group interpretation, thus freeing choral reading from its reputation of eccentricity. In the schools and universities of the English speaking world it is promising to become as common and as popular as choral singing.

Aims and Purposes

With its French origin, choral speaking seemed to us particularly well suited to the teaching of the French language. We hoped it would prove helpful in bringing about:

1. Improvement in pronunciation.
2. Greater appreciation of the characteristic music of the French language.

We found it not only of educational and technical value in the classroom, but also of practical help in preparing French club programs; choral speaking has proved especially adaptable to radio broadcasting.

Material Used

For Beginners. The richest sources for simple selections are children's songs and the popular traditional songs of France. These are full of refrains that present excellent combinations of sounds, alliterations and assonances, which are good practice and at the same time as enjoyable in group recitation as in group singing. After the pupils have mastered the pronunciation and have acquired a sense of rhythm and intonation, it is wise, as a final step, to make them sing the song. Thus, while getting complete enjoyment out of it, they also are made to see how closely the tune often follows the tone pattern of the speaking voice.

Among the many anthologies of children's songs and rimes, one of the best as a source book for choral speaking material is E. Rolland's *Rimes de l'Enfance,* Tome XIV, Litteratures Populaires (oral), Maisonneuve & Cie, Paris, 1881. For the popular traditional songs, Pierre Vrignault's *Anthologie de la Chanson Française* (words only), Librairie Delagrave, Paris, proves very complete. Many amusing refrains can also be selected from among the French Canadian songs.

For advanced students, there is a wealth of material in *Les Fables de La Fontaine.* The fables afford fine possibilities for grouping as they generally combine dialogue with narration. Let us take as an example "Le Loup et l'Agneau." The class first learns the fable in its entirety; then the pupils are divided into three groups according to their voice quality. The light voices represent the Lamb, the heavy voices the Wolf, and the middle voices recite the narrative passages. After a while the two rôles are interpreted by individual pupils of special ability, and the narration is taken up by the rest of the class.

Another possibility for advanced groups is the provincial ballad, such as "La Submersion de la Ville d'Is." These traditional ballads seem to be specially created for just such group interpretation; they produce much more beautiful effects in this form than in individual recitation. Among the more modern adaptations of the ballad form are Alphonse Daudet's "La Mort du Dauphin" and "Le Sous-Préfet aux Champs" (*Lettres de Mon Moulin*), which lend themselves to a number of choral arrangements; and there is ample choice in Paul Fort's innumerable volumes of *Ballades Françaises,* some of which, such as "Le bonheur est dans le pré," have such variety that after many days of repetition pupils do not tire of them.

Some of the poetry of the Nineteenth Century can also be used; Victor Hugo's "Djinns" and Leconte de Lisle's "Les Elfes" are excellent material. In choosing very lyrical verse care must be taken to select a poem expressing a mood rather than a very personal sentiment. For instance, of Verlaine's two lyrical poems "Chanson d'Automne" and "Le Ciel par-dessus le Toit," the first is possible material though personal, while the latter would not be appropriate because the feeling it conveys could not be shared by a whole group.

Procedure

We shall discuss the procedure which we followed in preparing a radio performance of choral recitations. This method can, of course, be simplified for more informal occasions.

The voices were divided according to their quality: light, medium, and heavy. After a general reading and explanation of the selection, we concentrated on the pronunciation. Words containing difficult sounds were taken out of the text and practiced singly. Sometimes individual words would be well pronounced, but be found difficult in certain associations; such phrases would be repeated slowly, then in natural tempo. When practicing for pronunciation alone it is better to take detached groups of words rather than to repeat the entire poem over and over again; for when repeating for the sole purpose of pronunciation there is a tendency to forget the meaning of the selection and to develop the habit of sing-song recitation.

When the technical difficulties had been overcome we took the poem as a whole; the interpretation was set, the intonation given to the pupils and the rhythm marked out. For a while the group practiced as a whole; later, the groups of voices were assigned different parts of the selection according to the varying moods of the passage or according to the various characters that appeared. Certain lines best suited to a single voice were given to individuals in the group. This lent variety and flexibility to the rendition.

Results Noted

It would appear at first sight

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that, though group practice might be expedient it could not hope to achieve the results obtained through individual attention. But it has been our happy experience to discover that high school children are sometimes more careful in group participation than in individual work. If they are made to realize that the poem they are to interpret is a unit that must be as clear as when recited by one individual, and that it must at the same time have the richness to which each one in the group contributes, they are more likely to make an effort at accuracy than if they alone were to suffer for their personal mistakes. After a while they begin to feel that one slip by any one will blur the crystal clearness of the whole.

There was the case of a blasé upper senior who could not pronounce a French "r." When this was first pointed out to her, she shrugged her shoulders and announced that one bad "r" would not be noticed. But soon she became so conscious of her mispronunciation that, fearing to spoil the general effect, she refrained of her own accord from reciting any of the words containing "r" until she had mastered the sound.

It was also surprising to note how violently pupils protested when wrongly accused of mispronunciation, as in contrast with the attitude of indifference that correction and criticism of individual pupils sometimes encounters.

Choral speaking proves also of benefit to the pupil who, though diligent and accurate in written work, is timid about pronouncing a "foreign" language, afraid to be laughed at. In group work this fear is banished, and the timid pupils get practice without feeling constant embarrassment.

Another result noted is the great improvement in articulation. Teachers of French go to great lengths to explain to their pupils that French is a language which must be very clearly articulated. Two of the most common errors of pronunciation made by Americans in speaking French are (1) slurring over certain syllables, and (2) failure to produce clean-cut sounds. To correct this it is necessary to exercise the organs of speech, which in English are much more relaxed. But in choral delivery even in English the movements of the lips, tongue, and jaw must be exaggerated to achieve distinctness. The doubly great precision which students of French learn through group speaking has a carry-over into their individual speaking of the language.

Perhaps the greatest benefit that pupils studying foreign languages derive from choral speaking is the closer acquaintance they develop with the pattern of the language. It is one thing to be told that the stress comes on the last syllable of a French word and quite another to be carried into this regular beat, with a whole group of others, under the constant control of a leader. Even those not participating learn a great deal by listening to a whole orchestra of voices following this one pattern. Pupils are often told that the French speech tune has many more ups and downs than English. But an individual pupil often feels ridiculous when told to imitate the teacher's inflections. And even if he is willing to imitate he feels that he is exaggerating. In group work, however, pupils prove much more pliable and ready to follow the vocal rise and fall that the teacher indicates.

If careful listening and close imitation are two essentials in learning to speak, choral reading, in giving this training, proves to be an effective aid in the teaching of foreign languages.

ANNA BALAKIAN.
Hunter College High School.

THE MATHEMATICS TEACHER FACES A NEW JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL SYLLABUS

The new junior high school syllabus, which will probably be introduced in February, stresses the cultural aspects of mathematics especially through the medium of intuitive geometry. This material, is advised, is to be integrated with the rest of the course.

Mathematics teachers everywhere are arguing that they do not have the time to teach geometry and history of mathematics because the children are so lacking in a knowledge of fundamentals. Throughout the junior high school, there is the problem of teaching the children to add, subtract, multiply and divide, to handle fractions and decimals, to solve a few simple problems—these are the topics that devour one term after the other. The consensus of teachers' opinions is that, unless something is done to correct the teaching of fundamentals at the elementary level, the new syllabus cannot be approached wholeheartedly.

This argument is not a sound one. As a senior high school teacher for five years, I found myself tempted to argue in the same fashion—i.e., something has to be done to correct junior high school teaching so that the children will come to the senior high schools prepared to cope with geometry and intermediate algebra. Now, as a junior high school teacher, in a problem neighborhood, I find myself tempted to cast the burden to the next lower level. This method of reasoning is an easy one to adopt. It leads to the final conclusion that, if the parents gave us better-equipped children, we could do something, but, while they continue to muddle the chromosomes, we are helpless. Having reached this stage, a teacher may sit back and permit bedlam to reign about him, convinced that no one could do any better.

Whereas that may be one solution to the problem, it is hardly satisfactory. Unless the junior high

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school teachers can find a solution to the problem of eradicating the deficiencies in fundamentals, any syllabus must fail.

When the children enter the 7A they do not have adequate equipment in the tools of mathematics. What can the junior high school teacher do to cope with this deficiency and still have time for an enriched course of study?

The teacher of the class has a choice of two points of view. He may begin from the beginning and re-teach the fundamentals to everyone, assuming that most need the work, and that it can hurt no one, or he can enter upon a program of remedial teaching.

If he attempts to re-teach, he will doubtless find the process inefficient. Both of the assumptions on which it is based are erroneous. There will be many pupils for whom the drill is sheer waste of time; the neutral bonds have already been set; some children will know how to perform the given operation with reasonable and dependable accuracy. These pupils run the risk of carrying the burden of the drill work; they will know all the answers and the teacher will be tempted to call upon them. On the other hand, if the teacher doesn't yield to this temptation, but, instead, calls upon those who must be taught the operation, the former students will be bored. The end-product of such re-teaching is not learning, but the creation of discipline problems. Thus this excess drill can actually be bad for those who do not need it.

To avoid the disciplinary difficulties which appear to be characteristic of the junior high school the teacher must hold the interest of each individual all the time. The teacher must not run the risk of offending the would-be adult by teaching him "baby stuff," and, at the same time, the teacher must teach the fundamentals to those who need it. Remedial teaching holds the key to the solution of the problem.

The teacher must discover what the individual needs are; she must not run the risk of boring the child with the skills he has already mastered. The teacher must let the child know what his own specific needs are and must create in him a desire to overcome his own deficiency. As soon as the teacher has made the child see that adults must know their fundamentals, as soon as the goal of individual attainment has been set, half the teacher's battle is won. All the teacher need do now is provide the necessary drill materials; the child can do the rest for himself.

How can the teacher discover what the child's needs are?

In the well-equipped schools, it is possible to secure standardized diagnostic tests in arithmetic. These tests will tell the teacher and the child where his weaknesses lie and how he compares with other students in the same grade.

In ill-equipped schools, the teacher may, through coöperative effort, produce a rough approximation of diagnostic tests. They can mimeograph tests containing several questions in each type of "fundamental," ranging from simple combinations, through single column addition, through multiple column addition, through all the processes similarly analyzed until all the types have been covered.

The children must be told that there will be no mark given on this test, but, instead, that they will find out from it what they must study in order to get better marks on their other tests. They must be motivated to the point of accepting a need for being able to add without using their fingers, for example, and they must be convinced that, if they deserve it, they will be given the opportunity to improve.

When the tests have been marked, each child must be told what his weakest points are, and provision must be made for immediate application of drill materials.

It may be argued that the text contains drill materials. The mere fact that our teaching has been so faulty to date indicates that text drills are inadequate. Children waste time in looking for and in copying examples. They make errors in copying the numbers which are not errors in the operation.

In lieu of the text, the teacher should provide each child with drill sheets, either printed or mimeographed, which will provide practice in the child's own weakest field. Again, in some schools it is possible to order these from the Board; in other schools the teachers may enter upon a coöperative project to provide a drill sheet in each type of example.

If each child knows what his weakness is, and wants to overcome it, and is provided with the means of overcoming it, the teacher need only provide the time for the work; the children will do the rest.

In my own classes, which are, as I have said, in a school in one of the problem neighborhoods, we have drill once each week. When Friday comes, the monitor gives each child his own workbook. The children get to work on their own sheets. Each example is done twice. If the same answer is not derived both times, a hand goes up and the teacher comes to the rescue. If the same answer is derived twice, the child goes on to the next example. When the sheet is finished, he asks for the key; he marks his own paper; if he has made any errors, he does the examples over; if not, he goes on to the next sheet.

Self-reliance is a by-product of this procedure. Self-respect is another. There is no shame or ridicule attached to this process. There is a simple recognition of the fact that each one lacks something, and that he can improve.

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Incidentally, the penalty for misbehaving is loss of the opportunity to improve. In these classes children are not given long-division problems to do as punishment; instead, they are forbidden the opportunity to learn if they are "bad."

Extra drill provided as punishment can do more harm than good in the educative process.

Such a program of remedial teaching need not take more than one period each week. The result is that the teacher has time for an enriched course of study throughout the term, and intuitive geometry need not dangle at the end of the term like a participle with neither antecedent nor consequent.

LORRAIN W. ADDLESTON.
Junior High School 159.

HONOR SCHOOL SELECTION

In September 1939, Bay Ridge High School took its first step in the formation of an Honor School. For the year previous a faculty committee had investigated all aspects of the honor system. It was finally decided to conduct an experimental Honor School for one year.

The experiment was to be conducted as objectively as possible. In furtherance of this, the committee decided to form an honor school nucleus of two classes of thirty-eight pupils each, one in third grade and one in fourth grade. Only college preparatory pupils were considered, since they were to follow a block program of studies.

In May, the grade advisers of grades two and three were asked to submit the names of girls they considered eligible for an honor school. Their recommendations were based on scholastic achievement and character and the results of the Otis Mental Ability and Nelson Reading Tests taken upon entrance into high school.

From the names thus suggested, thirty-eight in each grade were selected by objective test measurements. These consisted of two tests administered in the early part of June under normal school conditions. The candidates were first given the Otis Classification Test to determine mental-educational age and, on another day, the New Stanford Reading Test to determine reading age.

The papers were carefully marked by the teachers on the Honor School Committee. It was at this point that we departed from the use of the traditional IQ and Reading Score. Since our task was to select the seventy-six pupils who showed the greatest superiority, we felt that a new measuring rod was needed. As a result, we based our decisions on what we termed the Superiority Index.

The Superiority Index is a figure representing the difference between a pupil's mental or educational age as revealed in any standard test, and his chronological age. If a pupil on an intelligence test shows a mental age of 14 years 7 months, and his chronological age is 12 years 4 months, then his Superiority Index would be 2.3, indicating a superiority of 2 years 3 months above the normal for his age. Likewise, if a girl is 15 years 6 months old and attains a reading age of 14 years 9 months on a standard reading test, her S. I. will be —.9, indicating an inferiority of 9 months below the normal for her age.

The S. I. provides an easy means of calculating a pupil's ability without the necessity of the table or mathematical work involved in finding a quotient. Furthermore, the S. I. provides a numerical value which simplifies the comparison of various tests. Upon such a basis we were able to select our pupils as objectively as possible.

The median mental Superiority Index of our Grade 3, Honor School pupils is 2.6 while their median reading S. I. is 2.11. In Grade 4 the median mental S. I. is 3.0 and the median reading S. I. is 3.7.

These girls are going to be carefully watched and tested this year to determine the validity of our objective methods as a basis for the selection of honor school pupils.

BERNARD E. DONOVAN.
Bay Ridge High School.

ENROLLMENT IN THE DIFFERENT FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS AS OF OCTOBER 15, 1939

Languages	*I*	*II*	*III*	*IV*	*V*	*VI*	*VII*	*VIII*	*Total*
French	9,896	8,927	16,630	14,183	8,199	6,983	516	305	65,639
German	2,329	2,386	3,130	2,609	1,184	993	42	26	12,699
Greek	20	2	11	10	.....	3	.....	.....	46
Hebrew	471	585	734	469	207	133	.....	.....	2,599
Italian	2,195	2,025	2,613	1,926	857	721	80	60	10,477
Latin	5,083	4,247	4,699	3,565	1,634	1,368	209	158	20,963
Spanish	10,666	8,476	7,524	6,502	1,675	1,232	77	24	36,176
	30,660	26,646	35,341	29,264	13,756	11,433	924	573	148,599

Total High School Population: 261,358

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REVIEWS

THE LITERATURE OF ENGLAND

By Esther Cloudman Dunn. Chas. Scribners, $2.50.

There is a unique resemblance between the Elizabethan period and ours, Dr. Dunn holds. She undertakes a probing of the inner spiritual life of those heady times, and through the drama, poetry, and prose, seeks to establish the outlines and internal congruencies of the two contrasting ages. On the surface, the analogy is a fetching and plausible one. For both periods are characterized by turbulence and restlessness, expansiveness, exuberance. Both are maculated with gross and apparently incurable doctrinal sores. Both are torn by conflicting ideologies. But the analogy does not go beyond these surface similarities. For the etiology of the malaise is certainly different in both instances. Structurally, ours is a different society from that of Elizabethan England. The forces that are rocking our social foundations are something new. The world has never seen their like before. Any attempt to read into Elizabethan England, with its tumultuous and ill-directed energies, a tract for our times is certainly naive if not utterly foolhardy.

Forgetting Dr. Dunn's all too simple thesis (and it is very easy to do so), this volume is an exhilarating and eminently rewarding experience. Dr. Dunn gives us the "feel" of the period, its systole and diastole. We see, through her expert eyes, the spiritual currents of the time charted through the literature of the age. Elizabethan literature thus takes on a new unity and becomes a vibrant and consistent reflection and illumination of the life out of which it draws its sustenance. This inevitable relationship between life and literature is something the student rarely gets to see. The book is for him a discrete entity truly the "pretious life-blood of a master-spirit." But in this very process of apprehending the eternal in art, he very often loses the sense of the temporal and spatial reality of the work. In short, he fails to see literature as the product of a man and of an age. Dr. Dunn's treatment should do much to bring home to him the notion that Elizabethan literature is something more than a mere collection of major and minor masterpieces.

A. H. Lass.

TALKS TO TEACHERS ON PSYCHOLOGY

By William James. Henry Holt & Co., $1.00.

The profession owes a debt to the publishers for this new edition of one of the very few pedagogical classics. Reading it again, it is still fresh, challenging, warm, human, and packed with shrewd insights into processes and procedures. For sheer readability, it has no rival in the vast and voluminous literature in this field. And strangely, it hardly seems dated despite its forty years. Some of the pretentious stuff we have had to listen to these past decades sounds and is infinitely more medieval than these sprightly and canny utterances of James'. You owe it to yourself to read this volume if you haven't done so already. And if you are a little rusty on your James, go back to him again. He'll give you a new sense of your dignity and importance, of the excitement and adventure of teaching.

William Kilpatrick and John Dewey write a devout and penetrating preface to the book.

A. H. L.

BOOK NOTES

(Mention under this head does not preclude review elsewhere)

In a Word. *By Margaret Ernst. Drawings by James Thurber.* Alfred A. Knopf, $2.50.

A mad, merry, wholly delightful book about words and their ways. Mrs. Ernst does a deft and, in the main, scholarly job. Pedants, precisionists, and philologians may differ with her occasionally somewhat irregular inferences. But to the general reader, this book is bound to be a refreshing and stimulating experience. Thurber outdoes himself in the drawings he supplies to illuminate the textual commentary. He is, if possible, more ineffable than ever.

Compounding in the English Language. *By Alice Morton Bell.* H. W. Wilson, $2.50.

The last word on where to put the hyphen. And if you think it's easy, try your hyphenator on the passage printed on the jacket of the book. It'll send you scurrying, perturbed and considerably chastened, through Miss Bell's amazingly meticulous compilation of variant rules. You will be considerably happier and saner about the hyphen after you have digested Miss Bell's "rational system." Until you do, however, you will be immensely grateful for her listing of 13,000 compounds that are most troublesome.

This is certain to be the standard work in the field for many years to come.

The Failing Student. *By Kenneth L. Heaton and Vivian Weedon.* University of Chicago Press, $2.50.

Conducted with the aid of 938 probationary college students. An exhaustive and searching investigation. Students took a series of examinations, supplied data about study habits, courses, professors (exceptionally frank and pungent comment here).

The recommendations of authors include such matters as (1) freshman orientation and guidance, (2) articulation of high school and college, (3) continued guidance, (4) curricular adjustment and individualization, (5) remedial courses.

Academic failure is an expensive and heart-breaking process. This study ought to point a way out of some of the difficulties.

All the recommendations are applicable, in principle, to the high school, as are the causes of failure. Guidance counsellors, principals, grade advisors, and others entrusted with the task of guiding pupils ought to con this volume very carefully.

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